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Geographical Conditions of the European Colonies in North America.

(a) England, Spain, France, and Holland were rivals in their efforts to obtain possessions in the New World. While their claims were vast, the part explored was limited in extent. In 1750, the Spanish possessions in North America included Mexico, parts of the West Indies, Florida, and western United States from the Rockies to the Pacific. The English settled possessions stretched from Spanish Florida to Canada, and westward to the Appalachians, all the Dutch possessions having been absorbed. The French possessions included Canada and the Mississippi Valley, its three great cities being Quebec, Montreal and New Orleans.

(b) The regions occupied by the different European nations varied regarding their advantages for settlement. The Spanish had settled in Mexico, whose tropical climate and resources were not well adapted for settlement by Europeans, used to a temperate climate. France, locating early on the St. Lawrence, was hampered by the northern cold.

The coast line is an important point in making settlements. An indented coast furnishes good harbors, permitting easy commercial connection with the mother country during the colony's development. Navigable rivers, allowing easy access to the interior of the country, are an

important condition of successful colonies. A nation whose western lands had a fertile soil, a temperate climate, an indented coast, and navigable rivers, was best equipped geographically for successful colonization. The colonies of England and Holland possessed more of these advantages than those of any other nation; hence their growth was greatly aided by their situation.

(c) The Appalachian Mountains, stretching from Canada to Alabama, a distance of thirteen hundred miles, formed a great barrier to the westward movement of the English. This was an advantage in early days by confining the English settlements for more than a century to the Atlantic Coast Plain and the Piedmont Plateau, extending to the base of the Appalachians. If the settlements had been thinly scattered over enormous stretches of territory, the industrial development of regions with large populations would have been impossible. Manufacturing and commerce early became important industries on the Atlantic seaboard because of this compact population. In later days, roads and railroads led over the mountains, permitting the rapid settlement of the West.

Note.—The boundary line between the Piedmont Plateau and the Atlantic Coast Plain is called the Fall Line, because the rivers descending from the Piedmont Plateau have falls and rapids at this point. The Indians placed their villages on the streams along this line. Here the early settlers put their villages also, because of the water-power furnished by the falls and because their boats could ascend the rivers no higher than these falls. These settlements on the Fall Line grew into such large cities as Trenton, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Richmond, Raleigh, Columbia, Montgomery, etc.

(d) The four European colonizing nations varied as regards their early difficulty in reaching the Mississippi Valley. The Spanish had discovered the Mississippi River by DeSoto's work, and they had easy access to the valley overland from Mexico, and from the Gulf of Mexico by the

river itself; yet they neglected to colonize the valley to any extent, hostile Indians proving a check.

The Dutch by ascending the Hudson River and its tributary, the Mohawk, had an easy break in the Appalachian barrier, which there sank to a height of less than five hundred feet; they made no settlements in the Mississippi Valley, being deterred by the distance and by the hostile Indian tribes.

England, confined by the barrier of the Appalachians, made no westward movement for many years. Later, the Potomac and the Ohio gave them one route west, and the Cumberland Gap another. The Cumberland Gap was a pass in the Cumberland Mountains in southwestern Virginia on the borders of Kentucky and Tennessee; through it, a mountain trail led into the most fertile part of Kentucky, this being used at a later period by many emigrants.

The French, on the St. Lawrence, reached the Mississippi Valley un hindered by mountains, the route through the Great Lakes and small streams bringing them to the Mississippi River. The daring work of Father Marquette and La Salle opened this region to French settlement, and Louisiana, the French name for the Mississippi Valley, became an important part of the French claim in America.

Colonial Companies and Voyages.

(a) The success of the East India Company in India induced certain English nobles and merchants to form a company for American colonization and trade. A charter was obtained from King James for a company with two subdivisions, the London Company and the Plymouth Company, so called from the two English cities where these companies had their offices. The charter was a formal

document stating the location of the grant, the name of the owner, and certain rules for its government. The London Company was given a grant of land in North America, between the thirty-fourth and thirty-eighth degrees of north latitude with permission to make settlements there; the Plymouth Company controlled the land between the forty-first and the forty-fifth parallel. The company's shares sold at a sum about equal to three hundred dollars each, and the owner of the share was entitled to his part of the company's profit from trade with the Indians or from the discoveries of gold. The giving of these grants led to the settlement of the colonies by England, and out of these colonies the United States grew.

(b) The ocean vessels of that time were small sailing vessels, and the voyage lasted from five weeks to four months, depending on the weather. Thus the voyage of Columbus lasted seventy days; that of the "Mayflower" took nine weeks; that of the Jamestown settlers, about four months. The voyage on these crowded little ships was very uncomfortable, and the food was poor, consisting chiefly of salt meat and wheat flour. Passengers provided their own food for the journey, and brought with them clothing, agricultural implements, muskets, etc., for the new land was a wilderness, without any means of supplying their needs. It required much bravery to think of enduring the discomforts and perils of such a journey. Many settlers who could not pay their passage money obtained free passage by agreeing to become servants to the Virginia planters for a term of years.

Virginia.

(a) The London Company controlled Virginia, and in 1607 they sent out about one hundred and twenty men

under Captain Newport to make a settlement there, the object of the company being to find gold, to secure trade with the Indians, and to explore the region.

The three ships left England on January 1, 1607, reaching the entrance of Chesapeake Bay in April. Entering the bay, they sailed about fifty miles up the river which they named James in honor of the king, and on its bank they founded Jamestown in May, 1607. About half of the number were idle young men of noble families, eager to make their fortunes; few of the company were fitted to settle in a new country. The long voyage was very hard; the little ships were crowded, and the food was poor, consisting of salt meat and wheat flour. Jamestown was little better, as regards its hardships. The water was the bad river water, and the food was poor; as a result many died of hunger and disease.

Note.—The names of Newport's vessels were the "Susan Constant," the "Godspeed," and the "Discovery." Not one woman was in this first company.

(b) The colony was governed by a Council of seven colonists appointed by King James of England, Captain John Smith being among the number. He was captured by the Indians; but on his rescue by Pocahontas, the daughter of the Indian chief, Powhatan, he was allowed to return to Jamestown, where he soon became president of the Council. He made the people work by refusing food to the idle; and soon trees were cut down, huts were erected, and trade with the Indians was begun. In 1609, after he was wounded by an explosion of gunpowder, he went back to England, and never returned to Virginia. To this brave, honest man, great credit is due for his work in saving Jamestown from ruin. The winter following was

“the starving time,” when cold, famine, and the Indians reduced their numbers greatly.

So far the colony had not prospered. Everything belonged to the company, not to the colonists, and thus there was little incentive to labor. A later governor changed this plan, and gave the older colonists their own land to cultivate. Other settlers came and prosperity began. These Virginia settlers were called planters, and their farms, plantations.

(c) Agriculture was the leading occupation, and tobacco soon became the most important crop. To obtain laborers, a planter would offer free passage from Europe with food, clothing, and shelter to men willing to go to Virginia and sign a bond, or indenture, by which they agreed to remain the planter's servants for a fixed term of years, such men being also called “redemptioners.” Others of these indentured servants were persons convicted of crime in England and sold in Virginia as a punishment.

Slavery gave another way of securing laborers. In 1619, a Dutch ship arrived at Jamestown and sold twenty negro slaves to the settlers, thus beginning slavery in America.

Note.—In 1671, Virginia with a population of 40,000, had 2,000 slaves and 6,000 bond servants.

(d) The colony had considerable difficulty with the Indians. Powhatan, the friendly Indian chief, died, and his successor, who hated the white settlers, made a plot to destroy them in 1622. The people of Jamestown were warned in time, but the settlers in the surrounding country were surprised, and about three hundred and fifty were massacred. The Indians still kept on with their attacks, and the settlers hunted them savagely, and destroyed their villages. Peace was not made for ten years. A second

massacre occurred several years later, and the whites renewed the war, finally driving the Indians out of the settled regions.

(e) The planting of tobacco brought prosperity to the colony. There was little town life, and the villages were few. The rich whites lived on great plantations with the large, richly furnished mansion surrounded by the barns, the stables, the tobacco houses, the corn mills, and the huts in which the negro slaves lived. Roads were much less used than the rivers, each planter having his own wharf and his own boat, rowed by slaves or servants. The planter's dress was very rich, consisting of a long coat of silk or velvet, with lace ruffles at the wrist, knee breeches, and low shoes with silver buckles; a huge powdered wig completed the costume. Newspapers were rare. There were no public schools, the planter usually having a private teacher for his children.

(f) In 1619, the company invited each of the chief settlements to choose two delegates, to form an assembly which would assist the governor and his council in the government. Eleven boroughs were represented, the twenty-two men making the first House of Burgesses. This met in Jamestown, and could make laws for the colony. This was the original from which our State Legislatures developed.

Note 1.—In 1624, King James took away the company's charter, making Virginia a royal province. Beyond appointing the governor, the English government did not interfere much with the colony, and the House of Burgesses continued to make most of the colonial laws.

Note 2.—Sir William Berkeley was a royal governor of Virginia from 1641 till recalled by Cromwell. Reappointed by Charles II. in 1660, he ruled Virginia tyrannically for sixteen years. Nathaniel Bacon was a young lawyer of Virginia, who led the opposition to Berkeley. As Berkeley had a monopoly of the fur-trade with the Indians, he did not try to suppress their raids in 1676. Bacon, without Berkeley's sanction, invaded the Indian territory in 1676. For this he was tried and acquitted. The people now rallied around Bacon to secure relief from their heavy taxes and other grievances. Civil war broke out this

year (1676), and Bacon marched against Jamestown. He placed the wives of the opposing party in front of his troops, thus protecting his forces by the "White Apron Brigade." Jamestown was abandoned by the governor, and Bacon burned it to the ground. Bacon died soon after, before he could accomplish the reforms needed. Berkeley in revenge put twenty-three of his followers to death, causing Charles II. to say: "That old fool has hanged more men in that naked country than I did for the murder of my father." The next Assembly enacted Bacon's reforms, however, and the tyrannical governor was recalled.

Note 3.—The dried tobacco leaves were used as money in colonial Virginia, being bound in pound and hundred-pound packages. Salaries of public officials and clergymen were paid with tobacco.

The Pilgrims.

(a) The New World offered a refuge to those oppressed in Europe for political or religious causes, and the Pilgrims were the first exiles to seek religious freedom there. Queen Elizabeth, and after her, King James, thought that every Englishman should worship with the Church of England; the Separatists, or Independents, thought they had a right to establish an independent church, and to worship in their own way.

(b) To escape persecution, many Separatists crossed the North Sea to Holland, but they feared that their children would forget the English language and English customs if they remained in Holland. In 1620, one congregation decided to emigrate to America. From London merchants, they borrowed the money to secure ships, supplies, etc., each subscriber of £10 getting a share of the stock, and each emigrant Pilgrim getting a share. The gain of the colony for the first seven years was to be divided up among the share-holders; after that date, the stock was to be divided up among the subscribing merchants.

(c) After various delays, in 1620, the little "Mayflower" left Plymouth, England, with a company of one

hundred and two Pilgrims, so called from their wanderings. The journey over the stormy Atlantic lasted sixty-four days. They explored the coast for several weeks before landing; and on December 21, 1620, they landed in southeastern Massachusetts, at a place named Plymouth on John Smith's map of this coast. The men built several rough log huts that first winter, thatching the roofs with dried swamp grass; for food they had to depend largely on the ship's supplies. So great were their sufferings from hunger and cold that half of the colonists died that first winter. While they had as yet no trouble with the Indians, they were always ready, under their valiant military leader, Captain Miles Standish, each man having his gun beside him in the field and at church.

(d) In the early spring of 1621, Samoset, a friendly Indian, appeared at Plymouth, and he later brought the Indian Squanto, who made his home in Plymouth, and taught the settlers how to hunt game and how to plant Indian corn. The first summer gave a bountiful harvest, and a Thanksgiving service, with feasting was held. Massasoit, the Indian chief, came with ninety of his warriors and joined the feast as evidence of his friendship.

(e) The chief occupations of the early colonists were agriculture, hunting, and trading in furs with the Indians. Later emigrants brought increased prosperity; soon there were a number of little towns in Plymouth Colony, Plymouth remaining the centre of government.

Note.—With the development of the Massachusetts Bay Colony, the Plymouth Colony became unimportant, since its location was much less favorable for commerce than that of Boston and other neighboring towns. In 1691, Plymouth was annexed to Massachusetts Bay Colony.

The Puritans.

(a) The Puritans were Englishmen who desired that the Church of England should be "purified," as they said, though they did not separate from the church as the Separatists had done.

The Puritans also quarreled with King Charles I. on the subject of taxation. He hated any control by Parliament, and he raised money by forced "loans," from the people. Parliament was the only body with power to lay taxes, and in the Petition of Right of 1628, it asked Charles to cease this illegal taxation. He consented, but dismissed Parliament the next year, intending to rule without it. This roused many parties in England to opposition to the king.

(b) The Puritans emigrated in order to secure religious and political freedom. Some of their leaders sent out a body of colonists who settled Salem, on Massachusetts Bay, in 1628. The next year, in 1629, these leaders formed the Massachusetts Bay Company, securing a charter from King Charles I., which gave the right to govern colonies planted on its grant. In 1630, John Winthrop, one of the leaders of the company, with about a thousand Puritans, settled Boston, on Massachusetts Bay. The long voyage of eighty-four days had been very trying. On their arrival, trees were cut down and rough log cabins erected. Bread was very scarce, and they had to depend largely that winter on fish and clams. Many died from these hardships, but under the wise rule of Governor Winthrop conditions soon improved. Within ten years, fully 20,000 were driven from England to Massachusetts by the tyrannical rule of King Charles I. This "Great Emigration,"

as it was called, which ended in 1641, built up Massachusetts Bay Colony.

(c) Life was very sober and earnest in the Puritan colony. Travel was mainly by boat, or on horseback over Indian trails. The people believed in education, for many of their leaders were graduates of English universities. Free elementary schools were early established, and Harvard College, for higher education, was founded in 1636, at Cambridge, near Boston. The Puritan Sabbath, like that of the Pilgrims, lasted from sunset on Saturday to sunset on Sunday, and services in the cold church lasted much of the day, the sermon being two or three hours long. The people dressed very plainly, the men wearing knee-breeches, short cloaks, and steeple-crowned hats. Their rough cabins gave way to substantial houses, but carpets were almost unknown. In every house was a spinning-wheel, on which the women spun the wool and flax to make the cloth commonly used for their garments.

According to their charter, the freemen of the company were to manage its affairs; and only church members could be freemen. At first the men assembling in town meeting, made all the laws and elected the officers. When the colony attained greater size, each town elected delegates to a legislature called the General Court, while the town meeting of each town attended to local matters only. Most of their laws were severe, and such punishments as the whipping-post, cutting off the ears, or branding with a hot iron, were common. Yet these laws were milder than the laws in England, where two hundred different crimes had death as a punishment.

Note.—The great emigration was largely due to the arbitrary rule of King Charles I., who ruled without a Parliament for eleven years, from 1629 to 1640. The Puritans were forced to conform to the Church of England worship or to flee to America, and they therefore

hated King Charles I. His illegal taxation of the people reached its climax in the ship money, when he repeatedly collected money from the people to secure ships. John Hampden, a wealthy English gentleman, refused to pay his ship assessment of twenty shillings, as a matter of principle, and the case was tried in 1637. He lost his case, but his bravery helped to rouse the nation to revolt. From that hour till his death in battle in 1643, Hampden was the idol of the Puritan party. The attempt of King Charles to force religious changes on the Scotch led to their revolt, and Charles finally called a Parliament, in order to secure supplies to put down this revolt. The "Long Parliament" met from 1640 to 1660. One of its first acts was to pass a bill of attainder, condemning the king's chief adviser, the Earl of Strafford, to death. Strafford had worked to make Charles the absolute master of England, and the people hated him. The king in order to secure his own safety reluctantly signed the bill, and Strafford was beheaded on Tower Hill. The quarrel between the king and Parliament soon led to actual war, beginning in 1642.

The supporters of the king were called "Cavaliers," their leaders wearing the long hair and rich costume of the courtiers; his opponents were called "Roundheads," from the closely-cropped hair of the London apprentices. This war ended the Puritan emigration, for they saw their chance of overturning Charles's rule. The leading general of the Parliamentary party was Oliver Cromwell, whose two great victories of Marston Moor (1644) and Naseby (1645), made royal success impossible. The Puritan army with Cromwell as leader, became the real government of England. Charles was finally captured and tried; he was beheaded in London in 1649. Charles II., the son of the fallen monarch, was defeated and forced to flee to France. Cromwell, supported by his army, became the absolute master of England, ruling as Lord Protector of England from 1653 to 1658. In 1660, Charles II. was recalled from France, and Puritan rule in England ended with this "Restoration" of the Stuart line. The new monarchy was vastly different, however, from the old; for Cromwell, despite his faults, had made absolute government under a king impossible in any English-speaking country.

Connecticut.

(a) The Dutch had built a fort where Hartford now stands, to control the fur trade. Some English noblemen sent out a colony under John Winthrop, son of Governor Winthrop, and built a fort called Saybrooke at the mouth of the river, in 1635, thus making the Dutch abandon their fort at Hartford. The next year a party, led by Rev. Thomas Hooker, started from Massachusetts, and walking

through the woods, settled in the fertile valley of the Connecticut River, at the place now called Hartford.

Soon after, a number of emigrants came from England, and settled at New Haven, on Long Island Sound, purchasing the land from the Indians. Rev. John Davenport was their leader.

Note 1.—The object in settling Connecticut was to secure religious freedom, and to win a fortune from the riches of the new country. Hooker believed in government by the people, and he disliked the Puritan plan of limiting the government to a few. His little party of emigrants marched through an unbroken wilderness for more than a hundred miles, guided only by the compass.

Note 2.—When Charles II. became king in 1660, he tried to capture and execute the "regicide" (king-killing) judges who had ordered his father to be beheaded. Three of them fled to New Haven. When pursued here, the people helped them to escape. Tradition says that one of them, General Goffe, suddenly appeared from hiding when the Indians attacked the town of Hadley, Massachusetts, in King Philip's war, and led the people to victory over the Indians.

(b) In 1637, the settlers of Connecticut, aided by Massachusetts, fought a bitter war against the Pequot Indians of Connecticut, and destroyed the entire tribe, thus securing peace for many years.

Roger Williams at the risk of his life kept the Narragansetts from joining the Pequots in this war.

(c) Much attention was paid to education in Connecticut. Yale College was founded as early as 1701.

Note.—The settlers of Hartford and nearby towns, led by Rev. Thomas Hooker, drew up a written constitution in 1639, which gave all freemen the right to vote. In 1662, King Charles II. gave Connecticut a charter, which made them almost independent. Governor Andros was appointed governor of New York and New England by King James II., and in 1687 he marched from Boston to Hartford to demand the surrender of Connecticut's liberal charter. While the demand was being debated in the assembly's hall, with the charter lying on the table, the lights were suddenly put out. When they were relighted, it was found the charter had disappeared, for Captain Wadsworth had seized it. He hid it in the hollow of an old oak-tree, that was afterwards called the Charter Oak. When William III. became king of England, the people of Boston threw Andros

into prison, while in Hartford, the charter was brought out from the Charter Oak and charter government restored.

Rhode Island.

Roger Williams, a young Welsh clergyman, came to Massachusetts Bay in 1631. After some time he became pastor of the church at Salem. When Williams said that people had a right to worship as they pleased, the officers of Massachusetts Bay Colony decided to banish him to England, for they tolerated no religion but their own. Williams fled through the wilderness to the Narragansett Indians, knowing their language and being considered their friend. He stayed with them till spring, when he bought land from them, and made a settlement in 1636, calling it Providence, in memory of God's providence and mercy to him. He said that there should be entire freedom for all religions and that no one would be persecuted for his religion. A few years later he went to England and secured from Charles I. a charter for the colony, which gave the people the right to govern themselves. Rhode Island continued a charter government until the Revolution.

General New England Matters.

(a) Pequot War. (See Connecticut.)

(b) King Philip's War began in 1675. Massasoit had made a treaty of peace with the colonists, and during his life there was peace; but at his death, his son Philip became chief, and war soon commenced. It was fought chiefly in Massachusetts. Philip hated the colonists for getting his lands, and feared that the Indians would soon be driven out. He therefore roused the neighboring tribes,

and began a war which lasted about a year. Much fighting was done. Twelve towns were destroyed, and over a thousand settlers killed. Finally the Indians were conquered, and Philip was killed by another Indian.

Note.—When Philip's wife and boy were captured by the whites, the terrible warrior's heart was broken. His wife and son were sold as slaves in the West Indies. Philip was killed by an Indian in revenge.

(c) The New England Confederacy.—Plymouth, Massachusetts Bay, Connecticut, and New Haven each managed their own affairs. In 1643, they formed a union for protection against the Dutch and the Indians. This alliance lasted for forty years, and was called "The United Colonies of New England." Each colony sent two delegates, and these eight men had charge of general matters, such as Indian wars.

Note.—Rhode Island desired to enter this union, but the others would not permit it, Brewster of Plymouth saying, "Concerning the Rhode Islanders, we have no conversation with them further than necessity or humanity may require." The war against King Philip was conducted by this confederation of the four colonies.

(d) The people of New England paid a great deal of attention to education. A public school was established in Boston in 1635, and soon laws were passed compelling every town to establish free schools. All the New England colonies knew the value of education. Harvard College was established near Boston in 1636. Another great New England college was Yale College in New Haven, Connecticut, founded in 1701.

Note.—Another incident which gives us an insight into the character of these early times is the witchcraft delusion of 1692. Nearly everybody in those days believed in witchcraft, and several persons in the colonies had been put to death as witches. When, therefore, in 1692, the children of a Salem minister began to behave queerly and said that an Indian slave woman had bewitched them, they were believed. But the delusion did not stop with the children. In a few weeks scores of people in Salem were accusing their neighbors

of all sorts of crimes and witch orgies. Many declared that the witches stuck pins into them. Twenty persons were put to death as witches before the craze came to an end.—*McMaster*.

Maryland.

(a) The English Roman Catholics were treated very harshly by King James I. and the English laws forbade their worship. Charles I. was a personal friend of George Calvert, the first Lord Baltimore, a prominent Catholic nobleman. The king gave him a grant of land which was named Maryland, in honor of the queen of England, Henrietta Maria. Lord Baltimore died before the charter was issued, and the grant was made out to his son, Cecil Calvert, the second Lord Baltimore.

(b) This charter made Lord Baltimore the proprietor and ruler of the region granted him. He wished to make Maryland a refuge for persecuted Catholics; and at a cost of £40,000, he sent out a body of emigrants there in two ships, the "Ark" and the "Dove." They settled in 1634 at St. Mary's, near the mouth of the Potomac. The climate was mild and the soil was fertile, making agriculture the leading occupation. The Indians were friendly and the colony grew rapidly, settlers being drawn there by their desire for religious freedom.

In 1635, Lord Baltimore ordered a colonial Assembly of the freemen to make the colony's laws, this being later made up of representatives sent by the colonists. This Assembly with Lord Baltimore's agreement passed the Toleration Act of 1649, giving absolute freedom of worship to all Christians.

(c) As in Virginia, nearly all the people lived on plantations along the creeks and inlets. Corn and tobacco were the chief crops; and for this cultivation, slaves and in-

dentured servants supplied the labor. Travel was mainly by boat or on horseback. Under Lord Baltimore's wise, kindly rule, Maryland became a very prosperous colony.

Note 1.—The grant of Maryland was made on condition that Lord Baltimore pay the king every year two Indian arrows and one-fifth of all the gold and silver mined there.

Note 2.—The proprietors lost Maryland several times, but in 1715, the fourth Lord Baltimore secured it firmly. It continued to be a proprietary government until the Revolution in 1776.

Pennsylvania.

(1) The Indians who occupied Pennsylvania at the time of Penn's settlement were the Iroquois, who had come down from New York, and the Algonquins; the Algonquins consisted of various nations, of whom the most important were the Lenni-Lenape, or the Delawares, as the English named them. The Delawares were much milder than the savage Iroquois, who were noted warriors. Other Algonquins in Pennsylvania were the wandering Shawnees. (Describe Indian industries, homes, character, etc.)

(2) The Dutch were among the earliest European settlers of Pennsylvania. Henry Hudson entered what was later named Delaware Bay in 1609. Captain Cornelis Mey, who had discovered and named Cape May, in a second voyage ascended the river with colonists and erected Fort Nassau, near the present location of Gloucester. De Vries made a settlement in Delaware, a few years later, calling the place Swanendael, the Valley of the Swans; but a quarrel with the Indians led to the massacre of all the inhabitants. The chief occupation of the early Dutch settlers was fur-trading.

Note.—The Dutch soon abandoned Fort Nassau, and built Fort Casimir near the present town of New Castle, Delaware.

(3) The Swedes arrived in Delaware soon after the Dutch, erecting Fort Christina where Wilmington now stands. Governor Printz, the third governor of New Sweden, made a settlement a few miles below the site of Philadelphia, calling it New Gottenberg. The Swedes were excellent settlers, their occupations being fur-trading and farming. Stuyvesant, the Dutch governor of New Netherland, fearing the progress of the Swedes, led an expedition against the Swedish fort, and compelled its surrender. This ended Swedish rule in America.

Note.—Other Swedish settlements were at Upland, now Chester, and at Wicaco, now southern Philadelphia. The rebuilt church there still stands, and is known as the Gloria Dei, or Old Swedes' Church.

4. The English in Pennsylvania.

(a) The Quakers at this time were persecuted in England. This sect called themselves Friends, but in derision their opponents called them Quakers. They did not believe in fighting, either by individuals or by armies; they objected to taking oaths in court, and to all show or pomp. They refused to worship with the Church of England. An act of Parliament called them a "mischievous and dangerous people," and the prisons were crowded with them. It was this English persecution which drove them to America, where they found safety and religious freedom.

(b) William Penn had become a Quaker as a young man. He was arrested several times under the Conventicle Act, which forbade attendance or preaching at any religious service outside those of the Church of England. On his father's death, he inherited a claim against the English government for £16,000. In 1680, Penn asked his friend, King Charles II., to give him a tract of land in America, in payment of the debt, and the king gladly did so. Penn

proposed the name New Wales for his province, and later, Sylvania, meaning "woodland." To this the king prefixed "Penn," giving the name Pennsylvania. Later the Duke of York gave Penn the three counties now forming the State of Delaware. Penn wished to try what he called a "holy experiment" in government, founding a colony where not only Quakers, but all who were persecuted might find safety.

Note.—Soon after Charles II. became king, he granted the land from the Delaware to the Connecticut to his brother, the Duke of York. In 1664, an English fleet arriving at New Amsterdam, forced the surrender of the Dutch possession of New Netherland. The English then sent two ships to the Delaware, ending Dutch rule in America. Penn had almost absolute control over the land granted to him. For it he was to pay the king two beaver-skins a year, and one-fifth of all the gold and silver found there. His plan of building a colony he called his "Holy Experiment."

(c) Penn appointed his cousin, Wilham Markham, deputy-governor, sending him over in 1681. The next year, 1682, Markham and three commissioners appointed by Penn selected the site for the city of Philadelphia, between the Delaware and Schuylkill Rivers, the name of the city having been chosen by Penn for its meaning of "brotherly love." That year Penn himself came over from England in the ship "Welcome." The long voyage began on September 1st, and to its discomforts was added an outbreak of smallpox, which caused thirty deaths on the ship. Penn reached Newcastle, on the Delaware, on October 27, 1682. He took formal possession the next day, and soon went on to the site chosen for Philadelphia. There were then only a few houses in the place, most of the new settlers living in caves along the river front during the winter of 1682-1683. When the streets were laid out, those running east and west were named for forest trees, such as Spruce, Pine, Chestnut, Walnut, etc. Mulberry Street be-

came Arch Street on account of its arched bridge at Front Street. The streets running north and south were named numerically, as Second Street, Third Street, etc. High Street, later known as Market Street from its markets, was located in the centre from river to river, while Broad Street crossed it at right angles. From the first the city grew rapidly, soon becoming the leading city in the colony.

(d) Penn aimed to make the Indians his friends. In June, 1683, he made his famous treaty with them under a large elm-tree on the shore of the Delaware. Penn and his attendants were unarmed. After receiving some presents, the Indians gave the wampum belt and pledged eternal peace. This treaty was kept faithfully until the French and Indian War.

Note 1.—This elm-tree became very famous. A British general stationed a guard to protect it, when the English occupied Philadelphia, in 1777. It was destroyed by a storm in 1810, but its site is marked by a monument, now surrounded by a little park.

Note 2.—Penn, after the treaty under the Shackamaxon elm, purchased land at various times from the Indians. The most famous of these was the "Walking Purchase," by which he was to receive a tract of land extending as far from the Delaware River as a man could walk in three days. Penn, accompanied by a few friends and a small company of Indians, walked about thirty miles in a day and a half. The remaining day and a half were walked out in 1737, by orders of Thomas Penn. Three fast walkers were obtained, the prizes offered for speed being five hundred acres for each. A path was marked to guide them, and food was placed along the way at intervals. By noon of the second day, the fastest walker, a hunter named Marshall, had walked over sixty miles. The indignant Indians refused to give up the land until Thomas Penn, by valuable presents, secured the help of the Iroquois chiefs. Ordered by them to give up the land, the unfortunate Delawares had to submit.

(e) In the government of the colony, Penn was very liberal. Penn's "Frame of Government," drawn up in England, was adopted by the first General Assembly that met in Chester in 1682. This constitution vested the government in a governor, appointed by the proprietor,

and in the freemen of the province. The freemen were to elect the Provincial Council and a General Assembly, whose duty was to make the laws for the colony. This first Assembly also passed a number of Penn's proposed laws, which were known as the "Great Law," or body of laws, of Pennsylvania. This "Great Law" allowed complete freedom of worship; it gave to property owners and taxpayers the right to vote; it ordered the prisons to be made into workhouses, where the criminals were to learn a useful trade; it limited the death penalty to the two crimes of murder and treason, and this at a time when in England two hundred offenses were punishable by death.

Note.—In 1701, the old Frame was abandoned, and Penn gave the province in its place a new constitution, called the "Charter of Privileges." This gave greater powers to the General Assembly, which was still to be elected by the people. It made the Provincial Council a body to be appointed by the proprietor, its duty being to advise the governor and to act as a court of appeal. By it, the "three lower counties," or Delaware, were given a separate Assembly. This "Charter" continued in effect till the Revolution.

Note.—All the Quakers did not settle in Philadelphia. Many on landing settled on farms and in various small settlements in southeastern Pennsylvania. A considerable number were in comfortable circumstances, and they met with no such hardships as the Pilgrims endured.

Note.—Penn's colony brought him no riches. He returned to England in 1684, remaining there for fifteen years. In this period he had many difficulties to meet as the friend of the exiled James II. In 1699 he returned to Pennsylvania, bringing with him his second wife, Hannah Callowhill. He became again the governor of the colony, continuing so until he left for England in 1701, to defend his rights as proprietor of Pennsylvania. His affairs in England were in a very bad condition. Lawsuits, the expenses caused by one of his sons, and the claims of his agent, Ford, had involved him deeply in debt. At Ford's death, his heirs brought their claim into court, and Penn went to the debtors' prison rather than submit to their demands. He stayed there about nine months. When the Ford heirs reduced their claim to about one-half of the original demand, Penn's friends paid the money, and set him free. He died of paralysis in 1718.

5. Other Nationalities in Pennsylvania.

(a) The Welsh were among the early settlers. Most of them were Friends; they, too, had been persecuted by England, and they came to Pennsylvania to secure freedom. A few remained in Philadelphia, but most of them settled in the Welsh Barony, later called the Welsh Tract, a country section extending back from the Schuylkill. Others went still further west, settling in Lancaster County. Such names as Bryn Mawr (meaning "the great hill"), Merion, Montgomery, Haverford, and Welsh Mountains show the extent of their settlements. At first they were unable to understand the English language; they soon ceased to be separate, however, and merged into the colony as one of its valued elements.

(b) The Scotch-Irish began to come to Pennsylvania shortly after the year 1700. They came in great numbers, forming about a third of the population of colonial Pennsylvania. These settlers were the descendants of the Scotch who had occupied the northern part of Ireland in the seventeenth century. Pennsylvania attracted them because of its fertile soil and its religious freedom. They did not agree well with the German settlers in the eastern part of the State, and most of them went westward. The Cumberland Valley was settled largely by them. In 1768, when the land beyond the Alleghany Mountains was opened to settlers, many of them seized the opportunity, and invaded the western wilderness. The Scotch-Irish were energetic and brave, and well adapted to conquer the difficulties of frontier life. They fought and conquered the Indians, turned the forest into farms and towns, and were an important element in the development of the State.

(c) The Germans were the first, after the Friends, to emigrate to Pennsylvania. Penn and Fox had visited Holland and Germany, and their ideas were welcomed by many. Among these were the Mennonites, a people like the Quakers in their opposition to war, and in their use of plain, simple dress and speech. These Mennonites, persecuted in the regions along the Rhine, were glad to find peace in Pennsylvania. In 1683, Francis Daniel Pastorius, a learned German, master of seven languages, established the German settlement of Germantown, now a suburb of Philadelphia. The original settlement was made by a little company of forty-one Mennonites. The people were extremely poor, but their industry soon brought prosperity. They were skilled weavers of linen, and their goods found a ready market. They practiced other industries, such as lacemaking, printing, etc. Among their industrial establishments was the first paper-mill in America, built in 1690 on a branch of Wissahickon Creek, near Philadelphia, by William Rittenhuysen, a Mennonite minister from Holland.

After 1700, the English government circulated in Germany descriptions of the wealth and beauty of America in order to induce German immigration. Its efforts were successful, and great numbers came to Pennsylvania. By 1750, the Germans here numbered about 90,000, forming one-third of the entire population. They settled the valleys of the Lehigh, the Schuylkill, and the Susquehanna, founding the towns of Bethlehem, Easton, Allentown, Reading, Lebanon, and Lancaster. These people were excellent farmers, and their steady thrift and persistent industry contributed largely to make the colony of Pennsylvania successful. They did their duty in the Revo-

lution also, helping with their Scotch-Irish neighbors in winning independence for the nation.

6. Boundary Disputes.

(a) The disputes regarding the boundaries of Pennsylvania were long and bitter. Connecticut, by its charter, was given a grant extending "from the Atlantic to the Pacific." Connecticut, therefore, asserted a claim to nearly all of the upper half of Pennsylvania.

A Connecticut settlement was made in Wyoming Valley in this disputed section, but it was destroyed by Indians in 1763. Settlers from each colony determined to hold the land, and hostilities continued for a number of years. The dispute was settled in 1782, by a commission appointed by Congress. It awarded the land to Pennsylvania.

(b) Virginia claimed Pittsburgh and the western end of the State, and the matter was not settled till 1779.

(c) The dispute with Maryland dated from the beginning of Penn's grant, and it lasted more than eighty years. Lord Baltimore claimed a belt extending across the State and including Philadelphia. Finally, in 1763, two English astronomers, Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon, were employed to draw the present southern boundary line. These, after four years' labor, completed the boundary for over two hundred miles, giving the famous Mason and Dixon's line.

Note 1.—Mason and Dixon cut a path twenty-four feet wide through the forest, marking the boundary line in its centre. A stone marked each mile; every fifth milestone bore on the north the arms of the Penns, and on the south, the arms of Lord Baltimore. Indian opposition made the work difficult, and prevented its entire completion by Mason and Dixon. Others surveyors completed the line in 1782.

Note. 2.—The boundary between Pennsylvania and Delaware was surveyed by David Rittenhouse, the Pennsylvania astronomer. He also marked out the northern boundary, near the forty-second parallel, in 1785-1787.

7. Education.

(a) The Frame of Government directed the formation of public schools in the colony. An act of the Assembly in 1683 ordered that all children over twelve years old should be taught some useful trade. That same year, the governor and the Council of the colony sent for Enoch Flower, to open a pay school in Philadelphia. In 1689, Penn wrote to Thomas Lloyd, president of the Council, ordering him to establish a public grammar school. For many years, this Friends' Public School was the only school in Pennsylvania giving free instruction.

(b) Primary education grew slowly; for in 1833 only 24,000 pupils attended the public schools. Governor Wolf, in his message of 1833, urged the need of an improved system of public schools, and the law of 1834 established a general system of free, common-school education. The Senate of Pennsylvania repealed the law in 1835; but the House, influenced by the eloquence of Thaddeus Stevens, refused to agree, and the public schools of to-day became possible. From then on they spread over the State.

The schools of to-day show a great advance over those of colonial times in the length of the school term, in the style of the buildings and furniture, and in the kind and number of text-books.

(c) Higher education in Pennsylvania owes much of its development to Franklin. The present University of Pennsylvania began in 1740 as a charity school, on Fourth Street below Arch. In 1749 it became an academy, partly through the efforts of Benjamin Franklin. In 1755 this school was called "The College, Academy and Charitable School of Philadelphia;" in 1779 it became the University

of the State of Pennsylvania, and in 1791, the University of Pennsylvania.

Note.—The first principal of the Friends' Public School was George Keith, who served only one year. To-day this school is known as the William Penn Charter School; it is located on Twelfth Street, below Market.

Christopher Dock, known as the "pious schoolmaster," and noted for his kindness and devotion to his work, taught school in Germantown and Skippack for many years. Another famous colonial teacher was Anthony Benezet, a Frenchman who came to America in 1731, and later taught in the Friends' Public School in Philadelphia. He, too, was remarkably kind. He gave much free instruction to Indian and negro children.

The first college in Pennsylvania was the famous "Log College," established in 1726 by Rev. William Tennent, at Neshaminy, in Bucks County. This name was given to the school at first in contempt. One of its results was the establishment of Princeton University in New Jersey.

8. Industries of Pennsylvania.

(a) The main occupation in colonial Pennsylvania was farming. There were no patroons as in New York, nor great planters as in the South, most of the farmers living on small farms which they cultivated in person. The Quakers as a class opposed slavery; hence there were but few negro slaves in the colony. The farmer usually began with a log cabin in a forest clearing; this developed into the farm with its fields and orchards. From the flax and wool produced on the farm, the farmer's wife usually made the cloth for the family's clothing. Grain, fruit, and cattle were raised in abundance, and these, with flour from the grist-mills and lumber from the saw-mills, were their chief sources of wealth.

Note.—Dr. Benjamin Rush describes the German farmers of colonial days with "extensive fields of grain, full fed herds, luxuriant meadows, orchards, promising loads of fruit, together with spacious barns and commodious stone dwelling-houses."

(b) In the towns and cities, commerce was the chief occupation, the manufacturing being on a very small scale.

Workmen connected with various trades found ample occupation in the cities. The products of the surrounding farms and flour-mills were sold in the city shops, besides manufactured articles imported from England.

Philadelphia was a very attractive town in colonial days. The houses were usually substantial, two-story dwellings, often surrounded by gardens. The houses were heated by open fireplaces, where logs were burnt; they were lighted by tallow candles.

The shops in many of the dwellings had as signs, a basket, a beehive, etc., to indicate what was for sale. Great trading-houses developed in the city, carrying on commerce with distant ports, using in many cases ships built in Philadelphia shipyards. The city soon became one of the chief trade centres of the colonies, with a population of 16,000 in 1760.

Note.—Prominent men in the Pennsylvania Colony.

John Barry (1745-1803) was a distinguished naval commander of the Revolution. He was born in Ireland and came to Philadelphia when about fifteen years old. He became a sailor, and later a captain of a trading vessel. On the outbreak of the Revolution, he was given command of the "Lexington," with which he captured several British vessels. He and his men helped to row the boats across the icy Delaware when Washington surprised the Hessians at Trenton. In command of the "Raleigh," in 1778, he was attacked by two British ships; after a battle, he ran his ship ashore and escaped to land. In command of the "Alliance," in 1781, he captured two British ships after a sharp engagement. In 1794, Barry was made commander of the new navy, which protected American commerce with the West Indies during the difficulty with France in 1798. "The Father of the American Navy" died in Philadelphia a few years later.

John Bartram (1699-1777) was one of the earliest of American botanists. He was brought up on a farm, and his great love for plants caused him to begin his famous botanical garden. It is situated in Philadelphia near Fifty-fourth Street and Woodland Avenue. By the aid of friends, he travelled in the colonies, gathering and studying botanical specimens. He died in Philadelphia, just after the British had captured the city during the Revolution.

Stephen Decatur (1779-1820) was born in Maryland. His family had left Philadelphia during the British occupation, but returned in 1779. He entered the navy as a young man, and soon distinguished himself. In 1804, in the harbor of Tripoli, he burned the American frigate "Philadelphia," which the Tripolitans had captured. He served with credit during the War of 1812. In 1815, he conquered the Algerine pirates, compelling the dey of Algiers to make a satisfactory treaty of peace with the United States. In 1820, he was killed in a duel with Commodore James Barron.

John Dickinson (1732-1808), though born in Maryland, is best known by his public services in Pennsylvania. He studied law in Philadelphia and London, and became a leading lawyer in Philadelphia. He took an active part in the politics of Pennsylvania. His famous "Letters of a Pennsylvania Farmer" roused the colonists by showing them that if England taxed them to support colonial officers, the colonial Assemblies would have no control over these officers. He was a member of the First Continental Congress in 1774, and of the Second Continental Congress.

In July, 1776, he opposed the Declaration of Independence, because he considered it premature. In the Constitutional Convention of 1787 his wisdom and skill were of great value.

Benjamin Franklin (1706-1790) was one of the greatest men America ever produced. Born in Boston of poor parents, he had little schooling. He really was self-educated. Apprenticed to his brother, he learned printing, and at seventeen left for Philadelphia, beginning his own career. When twenty-three, he became editor and proprietor of a newspaper, the "Pennsylvania Gazette," and three years later he began his famous "Poor Richard's Almanac," which he continued for twenty-five years. He early entered politics. In 1754, he was a delegate to the Albany Convention, suggesting a plan of union. (Describe it.) The Pennsylvania Assembly sent Franklin as agent to England, and while there, he opposed the passage of the Stamp Act of 1765. When summoned before Parliament the next year, his clear reasoning showed them the folly of the Stamp Act and aided in its repeal. On his return home to Philadelphia in 1775, he was chosen delegate to the Second Continental Congress, serving as a member of the committee that framed the Declaration of Independence. Being sent as ambassador to France, his wisdom and ability won the French, and an alliance between France and America was formed in 1778. This alliance really secured our independence, by the aid that France gave us at that critical period. Franklin also aided in forming the treaty of 1783, which ended the Revolution. Over eighty years old, the nation still needed him, and he was a prominent member of the Convention that framed the Constitution in 1787. The services of Franklin cannot well be overestimated.

Stephen Girard (1750-1831), a French emigrant, reached Philadelphia as a young man in 1776, becoming there a grocer and a

wine bottler. He prospered by his skill and industry, establishing a fleet of merchant vessels known in every port, and becoming a millionaire.

He showed rare heroism during the yellow fever epidemic in Philadelphia in 1793, nursing the sick in person, and aiding in every way possible.

On the expiration of the charter of the United States Bank, Girard took it, forming "The Bank of Stephen Girard," in 1812. He rescued the nation from ruin in 1814 by loaning about five million dollars to the almost bankrupt government, when no one else would take such a risk. He died in 1831, leaving the bulk of his immense fortune for a college for orphan boys, thus establishing one of Philadelphia's noblest charities.

Elisha Kent Kane (1820-1857), the distinguished Arctic explorer, was born in Philadelphia. He was graduated from the medical department of the University of Pennsylvania. He served as surgeon in the navy, and visited many parts of the world. In 1850, he joined an Arctic expedition sent out in search of Sir John Franklin. In 1853, he commanded a second expedition in search of the lost explorer. Kane's ship, the "Advance," spent two winters in the frozen North, with the temperature often forty degrees below zero. He succeeded in reaching the most northern point attained by the explorers of that time. The second spring Kane and his men left the frozen "Advance," and after a journey of nearly three months by sledge and open boat, they reached a settlement in safety. Kane explored more than a thousand miles of the coast of Greenland. He became a national hero by his daring and resolute labor in the Arctic regions.

James Logan (1674-1751) came to America as William Penn's secretary in 1699. He was a fine scholar, knowing Greek, Latin, Hebrew, French, German, and was skilled in various sciences. He collected at his country-seat at Stenton, near Philadelphia, a library of three thousand volumes, now in the Philadelphia Library. He was never the actual governor of the colony, but he exercised great influence over its affairs as the friend of the Penn family. He was very friendly with the Indians and was often consulted by them.

Robert Morris (1734-1806) was a distinguished American statesman and financier. This rich Philadelphia banker and merchant took the side of the struggling colonists against England. He was a member of the Second Continental Congress, signing the Declaration of Independence. In 1777, just after the battle of Trenton, in answer to Washington's request, Morris sent him fifty thousand dollars, thus enabling Washington to keep his ill-paid army together. He raised the money for the campaign of 1781. "He issued his own notes at one time to the amount of a million and a half to meet the pressing needs of the army." Lodge says: "Altogether, Morris's services were hardly second to those of Washington or Greene."

In 1781 he was Superintendent of Finance, serving for three years. He was a member of the Constitutional Convention of 1787, aiding in the formation of that instrument.

After the war, owing to a business failure, he lost his fortune and was cast into a debtors' prison for three and a half years, neglected by the government for which he had done so much.

Francis Daniel Pastorius was born in Germany. He was brilliantly educated in the classical and modern languages. He came to Pennsylvania in 1683, secured a grant from Penn and with a number of German settlers made the settlement of Germantown. The success of the settlement was largely due to the leadership of Pastorius. He was a signer of the first American protest against slavery, this document being sent to the Friends' Meeting in Philadelphia. Pastorius taught school in Germantown and Philadelphia for many years.

David Rittenhouse (1732-1796), born near Philadelphia, was a descendant of the builder of the first paper-mill in America. He worked on his father's farm until he became a maker of clocks and mathematical instruments. His nights he gave to study, becoming a mathematician and astronomer. It was Rittenhouse who surveyed the boundary between Delaware and Pennsylvania and that between New York and Pennsylvania. He aided the patriot cause, serving as a member of various committees and boards during the Revolution. Washington appointed him the first director of the mint established in Philadelphia in 1792. He died, honored by scientists the world over.

Dr. Benjamin Rush (1745-1813) was born near Philadelphia. He was graduated from Princeton College. After studying medicine at the University of Edinburgh, he returned to Philadelphia in 1769. His medical lectures at the University of Pennsylvania during many years made Philadelphia the centre of medical science in the United States. Besides his work as professor, he had a large practice as physician. He fought the yellow fever epidemic of 1793 with great courage, sometimes visiting a hundred patients a day. He was an ardent patriot, signing the Declaration of Independence as a delegate to Congress from Pennsylvania. His writings on medical subjects were widely read. He is often called "The Father of American Medicine."

Thaddeus Stevens (1793-1868) was born in Vermont. After being graduated from Dartmouth College in New Hampshire, he moved to Pennsylvania, where he studied law. He was repeatedly elected to the Legislature of Pennsylvania. In 1835, his powerful speech in favor of the public schools overcame the opposition in the Legislature and established them on a sure basis. He removed to Lancaster and from there entered Congress, serving as a member for fourteen years. He was an opponent of slavery and a strong supporter of Lincoln during the Civil War. He advocated negro suffrage after the war, and was the chief author of the bill for the

reconstruction of the seceded States. This act divided the ten Southern States into five military districts, until these States adopted new constitutions ratifying the new amendments. He was one of Johnson's great foes, advocating his impeachment. He died in Washington.

Christopher Saur (now Sower) was born and educated in Germany. He came to Philadelphia, and established a printing-house in Germantown in 1738. His weekly German newspaper was known through the country. He published an almanac, a magazine, and a number of German books.

Bayard Taylor (1825-1878) was born in Chester County, Pennsylvania. He was the greatest writer the State has produced. Before he was twenty-one he went to Europe, undeterred by poverty. He sometimes lived on six cents a day, spent for bread, figs, and roasted chestnuts. He described his travels in "Views Afoot," a book that made him famous. He later travelled in many countries, and wrote a number of volumes describing his journeys. He was a fine German scholar, and his greatest poem is an English translation of Goethe's "Faust." He died in Berlin, after serving nearly a year as American minister to Germany.

General Anthony Wayne (1745-1796) was born in Chester County, Pennsylvania. He entered the patriot army as colonel, becoming a general in 1776. He fought at Brandywine, at Germantown, and at Monmouth. For his capture of Stony Point on the Hudson in 1779, Congress granted him a gold medal. His last victory was over the Ohio Indians in 1794. His daring courage made the people call him "Mad Anthony."

Conrad Weiser at the age of fourteen emigrated from Germany to America. Here he lived for eight months with an Indian chief, learning the Indian language. He later moved near Reading, engaging in farming. He was Indian interpreter for the Province of Pennsylvania for many years, and aided in making all its Indian treaties. He was greatly respected by the Indians.

Benjamin West (1738-1820) was born in Pennsylvania. As his parents were Quakers, they did not give him much encouragement in his desire to become an artist, but his genius conquered all difficulties. In 1759 he went to Italy to study, and thence to London. The Penn family in 1773 had him paint the picture of William Penn's treaty with the Indians, paying him £420 for it. Another of his famous pictures is "Christ Healing the Sick." He died in London where he had long been prominent as an artist.

Alexander Wilson, a Scotchman, came to America in 1794 as a poor man. He tried various occupations until Bartram interested him in the study of birds. He determined to make a collection of the birds

of America; and beginning in 1804, he traveled over the country. His efforts resulted in nine volumes on American ornithology.

James Wilson was a brilliantly educated Scotchman. He became a lawyer, and finally settled in Philadelphia. He signed the Declaration of Independence and helped to frame the Constitution in 1787. Of the fifty-five delegates to the convention that drew up the Constitution, he was the most learned in the subject of history and government.

Count Zinzendorf was a leader among the Moravians of Pennsylvania. He was born in Germany in 1700, and came to America in 1741. He founded the Moravian settlement of Bethlehem, on the Lehigh River. After organizing a number of missionary stations among the Indians, he returned to Germany.

Note 1.—Many great historical events occurred in Pennsylvania. The first protest against slavery was made in 1688, when Pastorius and three other Mennonites of Germantown sent a petition to the Friends' yearly meeting, protesting against buying or keeping negro slaves. The first hospital in America was the Pennsylvania Hospital, founded in Philadelphia, at Eighth and Spruce Streets, in 1755. Philadelphia had a tea-party in 1773, when the captain of the tea-ship "Polly" was compelled to take the tea back to England, because of the patriotic opposition of the people. In Philadelphia, the First Continental Congress and the Second Continental Congress met; and here, in 1776, the Declaration of Independence was adopted. During their occupancy of Philadelphia, the famous Mischianza was organized by the British in honor of the departure of General Howe, in May, 1778; after a regatta on the Delaware, the procession marched to the country-seat of Thomas Wharton, in the southern part of Philadelphia, where a tournament was held, followed by a ball. The first flag of the United States was made after the Act of Congress of June 14, 1777, by Mrs. Betsy Ross, at 239 Arch Street, Philadelphia. The Articles of Confederation and the Federal Constitution were both adopted in Philadelphia. The first national bank of America was the Bank of North America, established in Philadelphia in 1781; the first mint was established in Philadelphia in 1792. Philadelphia was the national capital from 1790 to 1800, and here Washington and John Adams served as presidents.

Note 2.—Philadelphia has a great many places of historic interest:

Letitia House was built by Penn in 1682-1683, near Second and Market Streets. It was the first brick house erected in the city. This house, called the Penn House, now stands in Fairmount Park.

Penn Treaty Park is located at Beach Street and Columbia Avenue. It has a small monument to mark the place where stood the tree under whose branches Penn made his treaty with the Indians in 1683.

The oldest church building in the city is Old Swedes' Church, or Gloria Dei, near Front and Christian Streets. It was built on the site of the original blockhouse church at Wicaco, and dates from 1700.

Christ Church, on Second Street near Market, took the place of an earlier church, and dates from 1727. Washington worshipped here, as did Benjamin Franklin, Robert Morris, John Adams, Lafayette, and many other great men of the Revolution.

In Christ Church cemetery, at Fifth and Arch, lie buried the remains of Philadelphia's greatest citizen, Benjamin Franklin.

Carpenters' Hall is located in the rear of the south side of Chestnut Street, near Third Street. This building is famous as the meeting place of the First Continental Congress in 1774, in which sat Washington, Henry, Samuel Adams, John Adams, and other patriots. The first Bank of the United States was here from 1791 to 1797. Here also was the Second Bank of the United States, from 1817 for nearly five years.

Independence Hall is located on Chestnut Street, between Fifth and Sixth Streets. It was originally called the State House, the present name being given after the Declaration of Independence was announced in 1776.

The east room is known as Independence Chamber. The table on which the Declaration of Independence was signed stands in this room, as does also the chair on which John Hancock sat as president of the Second Continental Congress. In this room, Congress met from 1775 to 1783. Here the design of the nation's flag was adopted by Congress, June 14, 1777. Here, in 1787, the Federal Convention, with Washington as presiding officer, drew up the Constitution for the new nation.

The most interesting object in Independence Hall is the Liberty Bell. The committee appointed in 1751 to secure a bell for the State House tower decided to have it cast in London. The motto, selected for the bell by Isaac Norris, was "Proclaim liberty throughout all the land unto all the inhabitants thereof." The bell was brought over from England in 1752, and soon began its patriotic career, ringing out the news of the great events in the history of the colonies' struggle for liberty.

The bell tolled last at the funeral of Chief Justice Marshall, in 1835, a great split in the side silencing its tones forever.

Congress Hall is a separate building, situated at the corner of Sixth and Chestnut Streets; it was erected in 1788 and 1789. Here the Congress of the United States met from 1790 to 1800, when Philadelphia was the national capital, the Senate meeting on the second floor, and the House of Representatives on the first floor. Washington took the oath of office here, after his second election as president; here John Adams was inaugurated on March 4, 1797; here, in September, 1796, Washington delivered his Farewell Address to the people of the United States.

Bartram's Garden is located near Fifty-fourth Street and Woodland Avenue. Its founder was the great colonial botanist, John Bartram. The old stone residence and the garden are now city property.

A few places of general interest in the city are Girard College, an institution founded by Stephen Girard's will for the education of male orphans, on Girard Avenue, west of Twentieth; the United States Mint, on Spring Garden Street, between Sixteenth and Seventeenth Streets; the United States Navy Yard, on League Island, at the foot of Broad Street; the Chew Mansion, or Cliveden, at Germantown Avenue and Johnson Street, the scene of the fiercest fighting of the battle of Germantown in 1777; and Fairmount Park with its area of 3,300 acres and with its many points of interest, such as Memorial Hall with its pictures, Horticultural Hall with its plants and flowers, and its old colonial homes.

The Carolinas.

(a) The first settlers of North Carolina were men who came from Virginia along the coast. King Charles II. granted to eight noblemen all the land between Virginia and Spanish Florida, the region being known as Carolina. In the north was the Albemarle Colony, near Albemarle Sound.

(b) In 1670, two shiploads of emigrants from England settled on the Ashley River, in the southern part of the grant. After ten years they moved and settled Charlestown, naming it after the king. This name was afterwards shortened to Charleston. This town and the surrounding country became a refuge for many Huguenots, or French Protestants, who had fled from France to escape the persecution of King Louis XIV.

(c) In the southern part of Carolina, there were many wealthy planters of rice and indigo, with many negro slaves on their plantations. Agriculture was the leading occupation and caused the colony to prosper. These planters had richly furnished houses and left all labor to the slaves, these living in separate quarters. There were few

towns or cities like those of the more populous North. North Carolina had only small farms with few slaves. It had no great cities whatever.

Note.—Carolina was finally divided into North and South Carolina, each with its own government, when the proprietors gave back their grant to the king in 1729.

Georgia.

(a) In 1732, King George II. granted the region between the Savannah River and the Altamaha River to General James Oglethorpe and a company of other benevolent Englishmen. It was named Georgia, in honor of the king. This new colony was intended to hold certain disputed territory and to protect Charleston from the Spanish and Indians in Florida. It became a refuge for poor debtors.

(b) At that time in England, the law permitted a creditor to send to jail any one who could not pay him what he owed, and many died in these filthy jails, being unable to pay their debts. Oglethorpe pitied these people and wished to help them. In 1733, with a number of such poor families, Oglethorpe made the first settlement in Georgia, calling the town Savannah. Later settlements were made by Germans, by Scotch Highlanders, and by Scotch-Irish.

Note.—The Scotch had fought to restore the heirs of James II. to the throne of England in 1715 and 1745; and after their defeat, many Scotch were forced to seek refuge in America.

At this time, the English laws prevented the export of Irish woolen goods. This ruined the woolen manufacture in northern Ireland, and forced many of the Scotch-Irish there to emigrate. These Scotch-Irish formed a third of the settlers of Pennsylvania and North Carolina, and a half of those of South Carolina.

Abridged from Bourne and Benton.

(c) Rice and indigo were planted, and the colony began to advance, though it remained undeveloped down to the Revolution. After twenty years the trustees gave back the land to the king, and Georgia was made into a royal province.

Note.—James Oglethorpe lived to be very old, and saw the colony he had founded become a State in the Union. During the Revolution he was offered the position of commander of the British armies against the colonies, but he refused the position, because his sympathies were with the Americans. After the war, when John Adams was sent as our first minister to London, Oglethorpe was the first to congratulate him on the winning of American independence.

Adapted from Elson.

The Dutch in America.

(a) Henry Hudson was an Englishman in the service of the Dutch East India Company. The Dutch had much commerce with the East Indies, and they wanted to find a shorter, all-sea trade route there. In 1609, Hudson was sent to try to find a passage through America to Asia. His ship, the "Half Moon," entered what is now called Delaware Bay and New York Bay. He discovered the river that bears his name, sailing up the stream as far as Albany, hoping that it might lead to China. This voyage gave Holland its claim in America.

Note.—In 1609 Hudson, in his Dutch ship, the "Half-Moon," sailed from Labrador to Chesapeake Bay, and then returned northward, entering New York Bay, after rounding a low, "sandy hook." The curious Indians, in their deerskin clothing, exchanged green tobacco for the white visitors' knives and beads. After reaching Albany, he descended the river and returned to Holland.

In 1610, Hudson, sailing for the English, entered Hudson Bay, where his ship was kept fast in the ice for some months. His sailors mutinied, and put Hudson, his son, and seven sick men adrift in an open boat. The crew was imprisoned when they reached England, and an expedition was sent out to find Hudson. No trace, however, could be found of this daring navigator.

(b) Hudson's favorable account of this region led to settlement there.

In 1623, the Dutch "West India Company" sent out a number of agents and settlers to locate on Manhattan Island (now New York). Peter Minuit, the first Dutch governor, in 1626, bought the island from the Indians for beads and cloth worth twenty-four dollars, and called the town New Amsterdam. The whole colony was called New Netherland. The Dutch also established trading-posts in Connecticut, in New Jersey, and in Delaware, in order to trade with the Indians. The trading-post at Albany was especially important, since it was a gateway to the Mohawk Valley and the Great Lakes.

(c) In order to secure more rapid settlement of the Hudson River valley, the company agreed that any member who should found a settlement of fifty adults would receive a grant of land. These founders were called patroons, and their colonists were dependent on them for land and supplies; they had almost absolute control of their grant. This system created a few wealthy land-owners, but it did not extend widely.

(d) The chief occupations of the Dutch settlers were farming and fur trading, the Indians giving them furs in exchange for merchandise. The colony prospered from its industry. Of its four governors sent out from Holland, the best and the last was Peter Stuyvesant.

(e) Several wars had been waged between England and Holland on account of ocean trade. James, Duke of York, asked his brother, King Charles II., to give him the Dutch colony in America, and received from him a grant of all the land between the Delaware River and the Connecticut. In 1664, an English fleet appeared in the harbor of New Amsterdam and demanded its surrender. Governor Stuyvesant at first refused to surrender, but as the people

would not aid him, he was compelled to do as the English wished. New Amsterdam was now called New York, and New Netherland became an English province.

Note.—Peter Stuyvesant, the fourth and last of the Dutch governors, was an honest man, but his rule was severe and arbitrary. Having lost a leg in war, he had a wooden leg bound with silver, and from this he was called “Old Silverleg.” At that time New Amsterdam had a population of about one thousand. When the English fleet came in 1664 and demanded the surrender of the town, Stuyvesant wanted to fight, but the people begged him to yield. At last he consented to surrender, saying, “Well, let it be so, but I would rather be carried out dead.” He ended his days in peace in his home in New Amsterdam.

(f) The Dutch were excellent settlers. Their houses were usually one and a half stories high, and were generally warmed by great open fireplaces. The people were very clean, and instead of using carpets, covered their floors with white sand. The cloth for garments was made at home, and each family had its own loom and spinning-wheel. While the people were industrious, they took life easily, and were fond of good eating and drinking. They rose at dawn, and went to bed at sunset. The men were nearly always smoking. They wore baggy knee-breeches, and coats with big brass or silver buttons.

The French in America.

(a) Samuel de Champlain was a brave French navigator and explorer. In his first voyage to the New World, he sailed a long distance down the St. Lawrence River. In his second expedition to America, he spent three years exploring the coast of lower Canada and of New England. In 1608, he founded Quebec, which soon became the greatest city of New France. Learning from the Indians of a great lake, he and two French companions joined a war party of northern Indians who were going on an expedition there.

Travelling largely by canoes, they reached this lake in 1609. To the lake which he thus discovered, he gave his own name, calling it Lake Champlain. When the party came up with the fierce Iroquois near the site of Ticonderoga, a battle ensued. The Frenchmen, protected by armor and equipped with muskets, soon routed the Iroquois, who turned and fled.

Champlain desired to secure territory for France, and to develop the fur trade with the Indians. He also aimed to make these Indians Christians. He labored twenty-seven years for his colony, and deserves the title of "The Father of New France."

Note.—Champlain's defeat of the Iroquois made this powerful tribe the bitter enemies of the French. This had very important results in the war that came later between France and England (1756-1763), for the Iroquois were the friends of the English in this war. Fiske regards this battle between Champlain and the Iroquois as one of the most important events in the history of the French colonies.

(b) Father Marquette was a young Jesuit priest, who had come to Quebec from France, as a missionary to the Indians, finally settling in Michigan. Learning from the Indians of a great river near the Lakes, he determined to explore it.

In 1673. Father Marquette in company with Louis Joliet, a fur trader, and five of their countrymen began their expedition, their outfit consisting of two canoes and a supply of food. From Lake Michigan they entered the Fox River, and from it by portage they reached the Wisconsin River, which led them into the Mississippi River. For about a month they moved down the Mississippi, finally turning back when near the mouth of the Arkansas. Marquette desired to bring Christianity to the Indians of the

Mississippi Valley. His work opened up this region to the French.

Note.—Marquette and Joliet, with five of their countrymen, made their daring voyage in two frail canoes. For days they floated in solitude. At length they met a friendly Indian tribe, whose chief hung a peace-pipe around Marquette's neck. "This was the sacred calumet of the Indians, the symbol of peace, a safeguard against warlike tribes." Other tribes proved friendly, and the long thirty-seven days' journey down stream was finished without strife. They reached their starting point after an absence of a little more than a year. Marquette, failing in health, went to Mackinaw in 1675, dying there. Morris says: "On the highest bank of the stream which bears his name, the canoe-men dug his grave in the sand. Thus passed away one of the most ardent in good work of the many earnest and devoted missionaries of New France."

(c) Robert Cavelier, Sieur de La Salle, was one of the greatest of the French explorers. At the age of twenty-three, he left France to seek his fortune in the New World, engaging in the fur trade of New France. He explored widely, discovering the Ohio River. He understood the value to France of the exploration of the Mississippi by Father Marquette and Louis Joliet in 1673, and he determined to continue the work. In 1677, he went to France to secure the king's permission to explore the Mississippi and to establish trading-posts in this region. Two failures resulted from his first efforts; in these he suffered great hardships, once travelling a thousand miles on foot through the forest from Illinois to Canada, in order to get supplies. The "Griffin," the ship that he built for fur trade on the Great Lakes, was soon destroyed in a storm, and his fort in Illinois was destroyed by the Iroquois; but La Salle did not lose hope.

Late in 1681, La Salle for the third time started westward, and this time he succeeded in sailing down the Mississippi to its mouth, in 1682. On the shores of the Gulf of Mexico, he formally took possession of the Mis-

Mississippi Valley for France, naming the region Louisiana, in honor of King Louis XIV. Returning to France, he secured the king's aid; and in 1684, he took out about three hundred French colonists, to make a settlement in Louisiana. The fleet of four ships by mistake landed in Texas, where the colony failed entirely. To save the survivors, La Salle with sixteen men started to travel overland from Texas to Canada, but he was murdered on the way by one of his companions (1687). The heroic La Salle gave France a vast territory; he ranks among the world's great explorers.

Note.—Review the French explorers taken in the Sixth Grade.

(d) The French were the great rivals of the English in America, though the distance between them deferred serious conflict for many years. The French claim, called New France, included Acadia, the St. Lawrence valley, the basin of the Great Lakes, and the Mississippi valley. The purpose of the French was to acquire new territory, to develop the fur trade with the Indians, and to convert the Indians. Trading companies with shares subscribed by shareholders were founded for trading and colonizing. The fur traders, pushing into the wilderness to trade with the Indians, did much to explore the country. For the Indians' valuable furs, these traders gave beads, kettles, axes, blankets, fire-arms, etc. Their forts, or trading-posts, developed in many cases into large towns.

The work of the Jesuit missionaries was very valuable. In order to convert the savage Indians, these brave, self-sacrificing missionaries endured much suffering and peril. The first missionaries lived among the Indians, and many Canadian towns began as a result of their efforts.

The earliest permanent French settlement in America was made by De Monts and Champlain in 1604, at Port Royal, in Nova Scotia, near the Bay of Fundy. Quebec was settled by Champlain, in 1608. It was strongly fortified and protected also by its high location. In 1611, Champlain made Montreal a trading station, and out of this the later city developed. Both of these cities, having access to the valley of the St. Lawrence and the region of the Great Lakes, were developed largely by the fur trade with the Indians, which was the chief occupation of New France.

There was no mountain barrier to keep the French from the Mississippi Valley, as in the case of the English settlers. Hence this region contained many French settlements. Of their numerous forts the most important were at Detroit; at Kaskaskia, in the present State of Illinois near the Mississippi; and at Vincennes, in the present State of Indiana. St. Louis was another early French settlement.

New Orleans was founded by Bienville in 1718. An embankment was built to protect it from river floods, and the city soon developed into the chief commercial centre of the Mississippi Valley. The inhabitants of the surrounding region exchanged there their furs, flour, and pork for sugar, rice, cotton, and other imported products.

Note.—A great weakness of the French effort in colonizing was that the people did not aim at permanent homes in America, as did the English settlers. French farming and manufacturing were not extensive, and their towns were small, Quebec remaining a village for a hundred years.

The Spanish in North America.

(a) In 1513, the aged Ponce de Leon, the Spanish governor of Porto Rico, with a small company of soldiers, undertook to find a spring whose waters, according to the Indian legend, would make him young again. He found

no such spring, but he discovered a land to which he gave the name of Florida. This name was given because he landed there on Easter Sunday, called by the Spanish *Pasena Florida* (festival of flowers). He was made governor of Florida, and returned there in 1521 to found a colony. In his battles with the natives, De Leon was mortally wounded. Spain founded its claim to lands in America partly on his explorations.

Note.—At first, Spain called all the country north of the Gulf of Mexico, Florida.

(b) Hernando (or Fernando) de Soto, a Spanish soldier, became very rich as a result of his share of the conquest of Peru. He was appointed governor of Cuba and Florida; and in 1539, with nine vessels and about six hundred men, he sailed from Havana, in Cuba, to explore Florida, hoping to find gold there. His army wandered in the wilderness north of the Gulf of Mexico for two years, suffering greatly from hunger and from hostile Indians. In 1541, De Soto discovered the river called by the Indians the Mississippi. For another year, the army wandered in the forests of Arkansas, vainly seeking gold. De Soto, worn out with care and disappointment, died near the great river and was buried secretly in its waters, in order to conceal the fact of his death from the Indians. The remainder of the army built boats and sailed down the river to the Gulf of Mexico, finally reaching a Spanish settlement in Mexico.

(c) Francisco Vasquez de Coronado (nä') was the great Spanish explorer of southwestern United States. In 1540, he left western Mexico with an army of more than three hundred Spaniards, accompanied by a thousand negro and Indian servants. Coronado's desire was to reach the famous seven cities of Cibola (sē'), which were supposed

to be rich in gold. For two years, he and his men marched through what is now Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, Oklahoma, and Kansas, returning to Mexico in 1542. Their long, dreary march brought them no treasures, for the "seven cities" were found to be merely groups of Indian houses in what is now New Mexico. The exploration was of value in giving Europe a knowledge of southwestern United States.

Note.—Review other Spanish explorers as taken in the Sixth Grade.

(d) The Spanish settlements outside of tropical America were not numerous. St. Augustine, in northeastern Florida, was settled by the Spanish under Menendez in 1565, this being the oldest town in the United States. Santa Fé, in New Mexico, is the second oldest city in the United States; it was founded by the Spanish in 1605.

Note.—The population of the colonies increased steadily, and by 1750, there were nearly a million and a half inhabitants. The early settlements were on or near the coast, but the westward movement began with the increased population. Emigrants from Europe came in a steady stream. When the Revolution began, about a third of the population of Pennsylvania was German, over 100,000 Germans living there. For their loyalty to the exiled Stuart kings, the English tried to break up the Scottish clans after the rebellion of 1745, causing many Scotch Highlanders to emigrate to America. The failure of the woolen industry in northern Ireland about this time sent many Scotch-Irish to America. These Scotch-Irish formed a third of the settlers of Pennsylvania, Delaware, and North Carolina, and a half of those of South Carolina.

Conflict of Claims in North America.

(a) The Spanish claim originally included all North America; later, Spain's claim was limited to Mexico, Central America, much of the West Indies, Spanish Florida, and western United States from the Rockies to the Pacific. Her claim was based mainly on the work of Columbus, De Leon, and De Soto.

The English claimed from Nova Scotia to Florida, from the Atlantic to the Pacific. By the original charters of Virginia, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, their lands were supposed to extend to the South Sea (Pacific Ocean); so the charters of the Carolinas and Georgia made the Pacific their western boundary. England based her claim largely on the work of the Cabots.

The Dutch claim originally included the region between the Delaware and Connecticut Rivers, and it was based on the work of Hudson.

France claimed Acadia, which included Nova Scotia and adjacent regions; Canada, or New France, the region drained by the St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes; and Louisiana, or the region drained by the Mississippi and its branches. The French claim was based chiefly on the discoveries of Verrazani, Cartier, and La Salle.

(b) In 1664, England, after several wars with Holland, its great commercial rival, seized her colonial possessions in America, and changed the name New Netherland to New York.

England's claim from the Atlantic to the Pacific was in part claimed by Spain, but this led to no serious conflict.

England soon saw that her great rival was France. For many years, the rivalry was not very intense, as the forests and the mountains separated their early settlements. The first quarrel between France and England in Acadia was not serious. The opening up of the Mississippi Valley, claimed by both, led to the great conflict of the French and Indian War.

(c) Spain claimed the West Indies, but lost much of her possessions there because of the attacks of the buccaneers. These were bands of piratical adventurers of different

nationalities, who preyed on Spanish ships and settlements in the seventeenth century. Originally, the buccaneers were English, French, and Dutch smugglers on the Spanish island of Santo Domingo, or Hayti, and they gradually formed settlements on other islands; thus the English settled Barbados, the Dutch, Curaçao, and the French, Martinique and Guadeloupe. Soon their ships began to capture Spanish galleons in the Caribbean Sea, laden with gold and silver. One of their greatest leaders was the Welshman, Henry Morgan, who seized and burned Panama in 1671. From 1671 to 1685, the buccaneers were at the height of their power, defying the power of Spain in the West Indian waters and along the coast of Chile and Peru. French, English and Dutch buccaneers formed an alliance for many years to fight Spain, and they acquired great wealth. After the French and English pirates abandoned their alliance and after various European nations attacked them, the buccaneers lost their power, in 1701. These buccaneers showed the weakness of Spanish power in the West Indies, and led to the English, French, and Dutch possessions there.

Note 1.—The buccaneers called themselves “Brethren of the Coast.” The word buccaneer is derived from the French “boucanier,” a dryer of beef, because these early smugglers hunted the wild cattle of Santo Domingo and dried the meat over fires. After 1701, some of the buccaneers plundered as separate pirates. The most notorious of these was “Blackbeard,” who in 1718 finally fell before the sword of Captain Maynard. “Blackbeard’s” head ornamented the bowsprit of Maynard’s sloop as it sailed back triumphantly into Charleston harbor.

Note 2.—The earliest permanent settlements of each nation were as follows:—

St. Augustine, Florida, was settled by the Spanish under Menéndez in 1565. Santa Fé, New Mexico, was settled by the Spanish in 1605.

Port Royal (now Annapolis, in Nova Scotia) was settled by the French under De Monts and Champlain in 1604. Quebec was settled by Champlain in 1608. Montreal and New Orleans were two other early French settlements.

New Amsterdam (now New York) was settled by the Dutch in 1623.

Jamestown, Virginia, was settled by the English under Newport in 1607. Plymouth was settled by the Pilgrims in 1620, and Boston by the Puritans in 1630.

Note 3.—Another early quarrel between England and France was over the Canadian fur trade. In 1670 a number of English nobles formed the Hudson Bay Company, obtaining from Charles II. a grant of the region around Hudson Bay. Trading-posts were established by the company on the shores of Hudson Bay. The French tried to drive these English away in 1685, but failed.

Intercolonial Wars.

1. **KING WILLIAM'S WAR.**—In 1688, by a revolution in England, James II., the brother of Charles II., was driven from the throne after a reign of three years. The throne of England was given by a convention to James's daughter Mary and her husband, William of Orange, the ruler of Holland. James fled to France, taking refuge with King Louis XIV. The French king determined to restore James to the throne of England; and in 1689 war began between France and England, aided by Holland. This war, known in the colonies as King William's War, lasted for eight years. Count Frontenac, governor of Canada, with his force of French and Indians destroyed a number of settlements in New York, New Hampshire, and Massachusetts. The English colonists invaded Canada, capturing Port Royal, but failing to capture Quebec and Montreal. The war ended with no change of territory in America.

Note.—The Declaration of Rights (or Bill of Rights) passed by the Convention of 1689 declared that taxation other than by Parliament was illegal; that maintaining a standing army without the consent of Parliament was illegal; that election of members of Parliament must be free; and that freedom of speech in Parliament must be secure. The Declaration ended by settling the crown upon William and Mary, and upon the heirs of Mary and her sister Anne.

2. **QUEEN ANNE'S WAR.**—In 1701 Louis XIV. made his grandson king of Spain, and on the death of James II.,

recognized his son as king of England, notwithstanding the Declaration of Rights. This caused a war known in Europe as the War of the Spanish Succession. Queen Anne succeeded King William in 1702, and in the American colonies the war was known as Queen Anne's War. The English colonists had to fight the French and Indians on the north and the Spanish on the south. Massacres again occurred on the frontier from Maine to Massachusetts. The English again invaded Canada, capturing Port Royal and renaming it Annapolis, in honor of Queen Anne. The English also changed the name of the conquered Acadia to Nova Scotia. The war ended in 1713, France giving to England Newfoundland, the conquered Acadia, and all claim to the Hudson Bay region.

Note.—In 1704, a band of French and Indians from Canada surprised the village of Deerfield, on the northwestern frontier of Massachusetts. A few of the people escaped, but forty-nine were massacred and a hundred made captive.

3. **KING GEORGE'S WAR.**—For the next thirty-one years there was peace between France and England. The question of the rule of Maria Theresa over Austria, began the War of the Austrian Succession, France and England taking opposite sides. In the colonies, the war was known as King George's War (1744-1748). The greatest event was the capture of the strong fortress of Louisburg on the coast of Cape Breton Island. At the end of the war, however, the fort was restored to France, who retained all the American territory she had at the beginning of the war.

4. **The French and Indian War.**

THE CAUSE OF THE WAR.—After the third intercolonial war ended, the French moved to shut the English out of

the Ohio Valley, while the English in Virginia determined to occupy it. Both France and England claimed this region, France claiming eastward to the Appalachians, while England claimed from the Atlantic to the Pacific. This conflict of claims in the Ohio Valley led to the French and Indian War.

WASHINGTON'S MISSION.—In 1748, a number of Virginians formed a company called the Ohio Company, obtaining from England a grant of land along the Ohio to the south. The next year a French expedition left Canada to take formal possession of the Ohio Valley; France to support her claim next built Fort Presque Isle (now Erie), Fort Le Bœuf, and Fort Venango in the same region. The advance of the French alarmed the English; and in 1753 Governor Dinwiddie of Virginia sent Major George Washington to the commander of Fort Le Bœuf, in what is now northwestern Pennsylvania, to request him to withdraw from English territory. The dangerous journey of some three hundred miles through forests and over swollen streams lasted six weeks. Washington delivered the message to the French commander, who, however, refused to withdraw.

OPERATIONS IN THE WEST.

(a) Early in 1754, Dinwiddie sent men to build a fort at the junction of the Alleghany and Monongahela Rivers, where Pittsburgh now stands. William Trent, a trader, led this little expedition. The French came and drove them off before the fort was completed and built a stronger fort there. They called it Fort Duquesne, naming it after the French governor of Canada. This fort was important because it was the key to the Ohio Valley and the region

west of the Alleghany Mountains. It was a gateway to the region on the lower Ohio.

(b) Washington's Expedition.—In 1754, Virginia had sent troops to aid Trent at the new fort. The commander of these troops died on the march, and Washington then took command. On the way he learned that Trent and the English had been compelled to surrender their fort to the French. Washington advanced a short distance into Pennsylvania, and at Great Meadows, in southwestern Pennsylvania, he built a fort which he called Fort Necessity. The French and Indians attacked him here, and he was obliged to surrender, but he and his men were allowed to return home with their arms.

(c) Braddock's Expedition.—Braddock was sent by England to command her forces in America. In 1755, he set out to capture Fort Duquesne, Washington being on his staff. The army marched from Alexandria, Virginia, along the Potomac to Fort Cumberland, Maryland, and thence into southwestern Pennsylvania. Braddock knew nothing of the Indian mode of warfare, and rejected all advice. When about eight miles from Fort Duquesne, he was suddenly attacked by a force of French and Indians, who fought from behind rocks and trees. He was mortally wounded, and his force utterly defeated, two-thirds of his soldiers being killed or wounded. Washington led the rest of the army back to safety.

(d) Washington's Defence of the Frontier.—The French and Indians now raided the western frontiers of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, destroying many settlements and taking many prisoners. Washington had to defend this long stretch of three hundred miles. He built log forts at several mountain passes, and moved his rifle-

men from place to place, as needed. He became famous for this skilful defence of the West.

(e) **The Capture of Fort Duquesne.**—In 1758, another expedition was led against Fort Duquesne, which succeeded in capturing it. This expedition was led by General Forbes, assisted by Washington. The name was then changed to Fort Pitt, in honor of William Pitt, the great statesman then at the head of the English government.

Note.—The French garrison, reduced to five hundred men, seeing that they were greatly outnumbered and on the verge of starvation, had burned the barracks and storehouses, blown up the fortifications, and departed in various directions, leaving the heads of their slaughtered captives stuck on poles. . . . Upon the arrival of Washington, the English flag was hoisted on the spot. . . . On the site of the ruined fort has grown up a mighty city, which stands the most enduring monument ever erected to an Englishman on this continent.

Garner and Lodge.

ACADIA.—The English had owned Nova Scotia since the end of Queen Anne's War. Nova Scotia had formed part of the French possession of Acadia, and its French inhabitants were naturally in favor of the French in the French and Indian War. For forty years, the Acadians had refused to take the oath of allegiance to England; when war broke out, England decided to remove these people to prevent revolt. In 1755, seven thousand of these Acadians were exiled to English settlements along the coast from Massachusetts to Georgia. A large number later found their way to French settlements in Louisiana. Their removal was a harsh military measure, which caused great suffering among these poor peasants.

Note 1.—Washington's battle with the French in 1754 was the beginning of the great struggle between France and England for the possession of America. In Europe, war was not declared until 1756, the colonial struggle forming part of the great Seven Years' War, lasting from 1756 to 1763. In this European war, France and Russia combined with Maria Theresa of Austria to oppose Frederick the Great of Prussia, aided by England. The fighting extended even to India.

Note 2.—At first, Virginia acted alone in opposing the French. In 1754, twenty-five delegates from the seven northern colonies met at Albany, New York, to consider a plan of union for defence. The plan proposed by Benjamin Franklin of Pennsylvania was adopted by the convention. By his plan there was to be a governor-general for the colonies, appointed by the king; in addition, there was to be a council composed of representatives chosen by the colonial assemblies. Both the king and the colonies rejected the plan, each thinking it gave the other too much power. The value of the effort at union lay in accustoming the people to the idea.

QUEBEC.—Quebec, in southeastern Canada, on the St. Lawrence River, was the key to Canada, and controlled the St. Lawrence. Quebec was held by the French under the command of the Marquis de Montcalm, the governor of New France. In 1759, General James Wolfe, a young English officer, led an expedition against it. He besieged it for nearly three months without success. Finally he discovered a narrow path up the steep cliff, on which the city stood. The English ascended during the night, and in the morning the French were astonished to see Wolfe's army facing them. A battle was fought, in which the French were entirely defeated; Montcalm and Wolfe were both mortally wounded in this engagement. Five days later, Quebec surrendered, practically ending the war in America.

Note.—Wolfe, the English leader, was only thirty-two years old. He rose from a sick bed to conduct the final attack on Quebec. As they ascended the river, Wolfe quoted these lines from Gray's "Elegy Written in a Country Churchyard":

"The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,
Await alike the inevitable hour;
The paths of glory lead but to the grave."

He said to those around him, "Gentlemen, I would rather have written those lines than take Quebec."

Climbing up the cliff, they scattered the guard, and at daybreak stood in battle order on the Plains of Abraham, before the surprised but unterrified Montcalm. Wolfe, twice wounded, pushed on until struck down by a third ball, when he was carried to the rear. Hearing the cry, "They run! They run!" Wolfe inquired, "Who run?"

“The French,” was the answer.

“Now God be praised; I shall die in peace,” said the victorious hero.

Montcalm, the dauntless French commander, wounded fatally, was told he had but a few hours to live. “So much the better,” said he, “for then I shall not live to see the surrender of Quebec.”

THE TREATY.—The treaty of peace was signed at Paris, in 1763. All of New France, or Canada, Cape Breton Island, and all of the territory of Louisiana east of the Mississippi River, except New Orleans, were given to England. New Orleans and the region west of the Mississippi River to the Rocky Mountains, were given by France to Spain. The only land kept by France in North America was two small islands near Newfoundland.

RESULTS.—By the French and Indian War, France lost all her power in America and England became the great power here. This led to increased development of the English colonies along the Atlantic coast.

Another result was to draw the colonists more closely together, as this was the first war in which the colonies had united to fight a common enemy.

The Seven Years' War in Europe made Prussia a great European power; it also developed England's colonial empire by securing her control of India and America.

Note.—The English navy had an important bearing on the war. It was twice as powerful as the French navy, and it could thus prevent France from sending reinforcements for her colonies by capturing her vessels. On land, Frederick of Prussia, the ally of England, defeated the French. Hence French success became impossible.

Mode of Life in the Colonies.

(a) The colonies differed much according to their location, but many features were similar. The rich planters and merchants wore English dress with knee breeches, long silk stockings, shoes with silver buckles, and ruffled

shirts, while a wig of long, powdered hair completed the costume; the poor dressed in "homespun," leather, or deerskin. This "homespun" was woven at home, every family having its spinning-wheel and hand-loom for making cloth from flax and wool. The dress showed the rank, slaves and servants wearing the very cheapest garments.

Up to the Revolution, smaller houses in the country were made of logs; the richer houses, while often of wood, had stately porches with columns. Open fire-places were used for heating and cooking. The rich used home-made candles, or lamps burning sperm oil for lighting; the poor used the light from the fire-place. The use of matches, gas, kerosene, or electricity was unknown then in America or Europe. All water used in towns came from private wells or town pumps, and this lack of good water, with the dirty, unpaved streets, made the cities very unhealthful.

(b) Communication was difficult. In Virginia and Maryland, most travel was by river or by horseback on rough paths. Roads were bad nearly everywhere, and the inns, or hotels, very poor. Not until 1756, did the first line of stages run between New York and Philadelphia, the journey taking three days. Coasting-vessels were relied on for commercial connection between the colonial coast cities.

Ocean travel was a terrible hardship, the sailing vessels taking at least five weeks to cross from America to Europe.

(c) The language spoken throughout the colonies was English. Public schools were few in all sections, though more common in New England than elsewhere. These public schools were only for boys, girls attending a private

school, if any. In the South, private teachers were employed by the rich, if they did not send their sons to England to be educated. Harvard College, founded in 1636, was the earliest college; in 1693, the college of William and Mary was founded in Virginia; in 1701 Yale was founded. The few books printed in America were chiefly on religious or political subjects. Newspapers were not common, and they were published weekly; the "Boston News Letter," begun in 1704, was the earliest in America, while Franklin's "Pennsylvania Gazette" dated from 1729. Franklin's famous almanac, called "Poor Richard's Almanac," was published annually from 1732 to 1757.

(d) In the South, agriculture was the main occupation; in Maryland and Virginia, the great crop was tobacco, while in South Carolina and North Carolina, rice, cotton, and indigo were raised. The South had great plantations with many slaves; the North had small farms, raising corn, wheat, oats, fruit, etc., by free labor largely. The farming implements were simple, no machinery having been invented.

Fur trading was important in New England, New York, and Pennsylvania; and the fur traders of Carolina, Virginia, and Maryland often crossed into the Ohio Valley for this trade. Cod-fishing, whaling, lumbering, and ship-building were important occupations in New England. Commerce with England, the West Indies, and among the colonies was an important occupation in the cities. The trade with the Spanish and French West Indies was forbidden, but many colonial shipmasters resorted to smuggling to secure this profitable trade. Manufacturing was not encouraged by England, who wished to keep such work for her home population. The manufacture of woolen

goods and of hats was discouraged; the making of pig-iron was permitted, as was the manufacture of shoes and ships.

Note 1.—Colonial money was scarce in early days. Tobacco was used as currency in Virginia for many years; in New England, beaver skins, corn, produce, and cattle were used as money; in South Carolina, rice. English coins and Spanish coins were used to some extent. The paper money, or promises to pay, passed by many colonial assemblies, sank in value from the frequent refusal of these colonies to pay their debts. Massachusetts for some years had a mint, the only one in the colonies.

Note 2.—Colonial laws and courts were less severe than English courts. In England, about two hundred crimes were punishable by death, among them being the crime of stealing from a shop an article worth five shillings; in the colonies few crimes met with the death penalty. Ordinary colonial punishments were the whipping-post, the pillory, and the stocks. In the pillory, the offender's head and hands were put through holes in a frame on a post, standing in a public place; the stocks were a timber frame with holes for the offender's feet, set in a public place. Branding with a hot iron, and cropping or boring the ears were also frequent punishments. All executions were in public.

Note 3.—The colonists had their amusements as well as their toils. Husking-bees, quilting-bees, etc., were gathering of the neighbors to work and to join in the subsequent feasting. Horse-racing and fox-hunting were popular amusements in the South. Shooting-matches were common, since every man outside the large towns needed to use a rifle. The theatre was forbidden in New England; in New York and the South, actors from England occasionally appeared. Drunkenness was a great evil in the colonies, the use of intoxicating liquors being very common.

Note 4.—Matches were not invented until about 1827. If the fire went out, live coals might be borrowed from a neighbor, or the flint and steel were used. Tinder, made of charred, or scorched, linen, was kept in a tinder-box. The tinder could be ignited in the box by a spark struck from the flint and steel. Stoves were not introduced till 1700. Franklin's new stove, made in 1744, was a great advance.

Colonial Forms of Government.

I. The English colonies were all under the control of the government of England, but there were three different kinds of colonial governments, called the royal, or provincial, the proprietary, and the charter.

(a) The royal, or provincial, governments were under the direct control of the king of England. He appointed the governor of the colony and the upper house of the colonial legislature, or council. The people elected the members of the lower house. At the beginning of the Revolution, New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia were royal provinces.

(b) The proprietary form of government was one in which the king gave to certain individuals, called proprietors, the ownership of the land of a colony and the right to govern it. The proprietor selected the governor and the upper house of the colonial legislature, while the people elected the lower house. Pennsylvania, Delaware, and Maryland had each a proprietary government at the beginning of the Revolution.

(c) A charter form of government was one in which the people had the right to govern themselves. The king granted them a document called a charter, which stated their rights and privileges. The people elected their governor, and also the members of both houses of legislature. This was the best form of government because it gave the most freedom to the colonists.

Connecticut and Rhode Island had each a charter form of government at the Revolution.

Note.—Massachusetts had a charter, but its governor was appointed by the king, and it was really a royal colony.

(d) The resemblances between the three forms of colonial government were:

1. Each had a governor and an Assembly, or colonial legislature of two houses.
2. In each the lower house was elected by the people.

3. They all claimed the right to manage their own local affairs.

4. No colony could pass any law that violated the laws of England.

Note.—The *effect* of the colonial governments was to arouse in the colonists a desire for more liberty, and to furnish them with valuable training in government.

(e) The differences between the three forms were:

1. In the provincial form, the people were entirely dependent on the pleasure of the king, as he appointed the governor and the council, or upper house.

2. In the proprietary form, the power was vested in the proprietor who could appoint the governor and the council.

3. In the charter form, the power was vested in the people, who elected their own officers and were almost independent.

II. In addition to the general government of the colony, the various cities and villages had each their local government. In New England towns, the town meeting, which was a general meeting of the men of the place, chose the town officials, made local laws for the town, and settled such matters as the care of the roads, bridges, etc. With the scattered population of the southern colonies, a town meeting would have been very inconvenient; here, justices of the peace and other local officers were selected by the governor. In the middle colonies, a mixture of the two systems was used.

Causes of the Revolution.

(a) The remote causes of the American Revolution were the Navigation Acts, the Sugar Act, and other laws intended to build up English commerce and manufactures by restricting colonial industries. The direct causes were

the strict enforcement of the Navigation Acts, the Stamp Act, the quartering of royal troops in the colonies to be supported by colonial taxation, and the general belief of the colonists that taxation by the English Parliament, in which they had no representation, was unjust.

Note.—The English government would not allow the colonists to send representatives to the English Parliament, to aid in making the laws. James Otis, pleading in court for the Boston merchants against the writs of assistance in 1761, declared in his speech that taxation without representation was tyranny. This speech stirred the colonists deeply, and they adopted this principle. Commenting on this speech long afterwards, John Adams said, "Then and there the child Independence was born."

(b) The Navigation Acts.—The general view in Europe for many years before the Revolution was that colonies were intended only as a source of gain to the mother country. The various Navigation Acts were based on this idea. The Navigation Act of 1651 was a blow at the great ocean trade of the Dutch, and led to a war between England and Holland. The Navigation Acts of 1660, 1663, and later, were intended to benefit English shipping interests and English merchants by requiring the colonists to ship most of their goods to English ports in English or colonial vessels, manned by English or colonial seamen. No goods could be carried from Europe to America unless first landed in England.

Note.—Cromwell caused Parliament in 1651 to pass a Navigation Act in order to encourage English shipping and to reduce Dutch trade, by providing that only English vessels should bring to England the commodities produced in Asia, Africa, or America. The later Navigation Acts increased restrictions. If a Dutch vessel with a cargo from the East entered New York, the colonists were forbidden to buy the goods; if a colonial merchant wished French or Dutch goods, he must order them through English merchants. The colonists had an abundant supply of fur, but they could export no hats or caps to Europe; they had much iron, but by a law of 1750, they could make no steel. To keep trade in the hands of the British, a heavy duty was laid on rum, sugar, or molasses imported from the French West Indies.

Smuggling to evade the Navigation Acts was very common in the colonies, and for many years the English government made little attempt to stop it. In 1761, soon after George III. became king, writs of assistance were issued by the English government, allowing custom-house officers to enter any house and search for smuggled goods. This enforcement of the Navigation Acts injured New England commerce and aroused the people's hatred of England.

The various Navigation Acts passed by the English Parliament hindered the development of the commerce and the manufactures of the American colonies, and caused the colonists to feel much resentment against England.

Note.—As long as France held Canada, the English colonies needed the protection of England. When French rule in America ended in 1763, all danger from France ended, and the colonists began to show more opposition to control by the English Parliament.

(c) The Sugar Act of 1733 laid a heavy duty on sugar and molasses imported by the colonists from any place except the British West Indies, in order to make the colonists buy sugar and molasses from British merchants. It was modified and enforced in 1764.

(d) The Stamp Act.—In 1763, the English government estimated that 20,000 British soldiers should be kept in America, to protect the colonies if needed; in order to raise money to help support these troops, a Stamp Act was planned. England and Ireland each supported its own army, and the government thought the American colonies should help to pay for their army.

The Stamp Act, passed by Parliament in 1765, levied a tax on all law and business papers used in the colonies and on all newspapers. No document or certificate was legal without the stamp. All legal documents were to

pay a stamp duty, varying from three pence to ten pounds; other documents, newspapers, etc., were to be on stamped paper from England.

The Stamp Act aroused great opposition in America. Societies called "Sons of Liberty" resisted it boldly. Delegates from nine of the colonies met in New York in 1765, and protested against taxation by Parliament. After this Stamp Act Congress adjourned, committees of correspondence took up the question of injuring British trade in America, and non-importation agreements were widely adopted by the people. Very few stamps were sold, owing to the popular opposition, and in most of the colonies the Stamp Act was not enforced.

What the colonists really opposed was taxation without their consent. They did not want the troops, and they felt that such taxation without representation in Parliament was a destruction of their liberty.

The refusal of the Americans to buy English goods caused much loss to English merchants and workmen, and Parliament, therefore, in 1766, repealed the act.

Note.—The House of Burgesses of Virginia was the first to oppose the Stamp Act. In 1765, Patrick Henry, a young lawyer, in a speech before it, said that Parliament had no right to tax America. In this speech he said, "Cæsar had his Brutus, Charles I. his Cromwell, and George III."—Just then several cried out "Treason! Treason!" Henry then went on calmly saying, "may profit by their example. If this be treason, make the most of it."

(e) The Townshend Acts.—Parliament after repealing the Stamp Act declared its right to tax the colonies. In 1767, Parliament passed the Townshend Acts proposed by Charles Townshend, one of these taxing glass, lead, paper, paint, and tea imported into the colonies. The merchants now renewed their non-importation agreements, by which they refused to import British goods. Their resistance

was successful; and in 1770, Parliament removed all the Townshend taxes except the tax on tea.

Note.—Samuel Adams said: “We will form an immediate and universal combination to eat nothing, drink nothing, wear nothing, imported from Great Britain.” He and other Boston patriots later organized Committees of Correspondence in the Massachusetts towns in order to keep the colonists constantly informed of the acts of the British government.

(f) The Boston Massacre.—In 1768, two British regiments were sent to Boston. Their presence angered the people. In 1770, a fight occurred between eight soldiers and a mob of several hundred, led by Crispus Attucks, an Indian or mulatto. The soldiers fired in self-defence, wounding eight and killing three, one of those killed being Attucks. The effect of the “Boston Massacre” was to cause intense anger in America, and to rouse the colonists to fight British oppression.

Note 1.—The soldiers were tried for murder, but were defended by John Adams and Josiah Quincy. All were set free, though two were branded on the hand with a red-hot iron for manslaughter.

Note. 2.—Faneuil Hall in Boston is called “The Cradle of Liberty,” because the colonists held many town-meetings there while resisting British oppression.

(g) The Boston Tea Party.—In 1770, Parliament removed all taxes, except a tax of three pence a pound on tea. This tea tax was retained by the English government to prove its right to tax the colonies.

The people, however, refused to drink any tea.

In 1773, when the East India Company sent the tea to America, the people resisted vigorously. In Philadelphia and New York, they sent the ships back to London. In Boston they would not let the tea be landed, and the ships with the tea on board stayed nearly three weeks in the harbor, until one night a party of about forty citizens, disguised as Indians, emptied the tea chests into the harbor (December, 1773).

Note 1.—In Charleston, the tea was stored in a damp cellar, and during the Revolution was sold by the State for the State treasury.

Note 2.—Boston's "Tea Party" caused the English Parliament in 1774, as a punishment, to pass what the colonists called "The Intolerable Acts." These five acts provided as follows:

The port of Boston was closed to all commerce till the citizens should pay the East India Company about \$75,000, the value of the destroyed tea.

The charter of Massachusetts was changed so that the colony was almost wholly deprived of self-government.

Persons accused of murder done while executing the laws were to be tried in England or in other colonies.

Royal troops were to be quartered on the colonists.

The province of Quebec was extended south to the Ohio River, taking much land claimed by Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Virginia.

THE FIRST CONTINENTAL CONGRESS.—England's punishment of Massachusetts for its resistance roused the colonists, and in 1774, an assembly of delegates from all the colonies except Georgia met in Carpenters' Hall, in Philadelphia. This convention, suggested by Virginia, was the First Continental Congress. It passed a Declaration of Rights, demanding the right of the colonists to levy their own taxes and to make their own local laws; it adopted the "Association," which was an agreement to import no English products and to export nothing to British ports after certain fixed dates. This Congress also provided for a second Congress to meet in May, 1775.

Washington, Patrick Henry, Samuel Adams, and John Adams were some of the leading members of the First Continental Congress.

The "Association" was promptly ratified by all the colonies except New York and Georgia, and was a very important measure.

Note.—Two parties now existed in America. Those who opposed resistance to England, and sided with King George, were called loyalists, or Tories. Those who opposed English taxation as unjust and favored colonial rights were called patriots. The people in England were likewise divided. Parliament had a large majority upholding

the severe measures of King George III., but Pitt, Burke, and Fox were favorable to the colonies, and worked for their rights in Parliament.

Operations in New England and Canada.

(a) Lexington.—In April, 1775, General Gage sent a force of British under Colonel Smith and Major Piteairn to take the ammunition stored at Concord, about twenty miles from Boston, and to capture Hancock and Samuel Adams, who were staying in Lexington, eleven miles from Boston. Paul Revere and others warned the inhabitants; and when the British reached Lexington, they found about fifty minutemen under Captain Parker drawn up to oppose them. As they refused to disperse, the British fired on them, seven being killed. The British then went on to Concord, and destroyed the military supplies still there. A fight occurred at Concord Bridge between the aroused Americans and the British, and Colonel Smith gave the order to retreat. From behind every wall and fence on the way back, the farmers shot, changing the retreat to a rout. At Lexington, they were reinforced, and they finally managed to reach Boston.

The effect of the battle was to rouse the whole country for war.

Note 1.—The Massachusetts patriot soldiers were called “Minutemen,” because they were told to be prepared to begin war at a minute’s warning. They required much training before they became a real army. When they began fighting, they were only an “armed crowd.”

Note 2.—From Emerson’s “*Concord Hymn*” (sung at the completion of the Battle Monument, April, 1836).

By the rude bridge that arched the flood,
 Their flag to April’s breeze unfurled,
 Here once the embattled farmers stood,
 And fired the shot heard round the world.

The foe long since in silence slept;
 Alike the conqueror silent sleeps;
 And time the ruined bridge has swept
 Down the dark stream which seaward creeps.

Spirit, that made those heroes dare
 To die and leave their children free,
 Bid Time and Nature gently spare
 The shaft we raise to them and thee.

(b) Ticonderoga.—In May, 1775, Ethan Allen and Benedict Arnold, with a small force of volunteers, surprised and captured Fort Ticonderoga, in northeastern New York, on Lake Champlain. No resistance was made by the British.

Note.—Allen is said to have demanded the fort's surrender "in the name of the great Jehovah and the Continental Congress."

(c) Bunker Hill.—When the Americans learned that General Gage had determined to seize the hills near Boston, they determined to be the first to fortify Bunker Hill, near Boston. Colonel William Prescott was therefore sent to occupy it. Instead, he fortified Breed's Hill, which was nearer Boston. The British, led by General William Howe, attacked them the next morning, June 17, 1775. The Americans repulsed the British attack twice; but when the British attacked the third time, the Americans were obliged to retreat from lack of ammunition. General Joseph Warren was killed in this battle.

The battle had a great effect. It roused the colonists to fight, by showing them that the American soldiers were a match for the British regulars.

Note.—General Howe succeeded General Gage as British commander-in-chief in America in 1775, soon after the battle of Bunker Hill.

(d) The Capture of Boston.—In 1775, the Second Continental Congress appointed Washington commander-in-chief. He took charge of his badly equipped and badly disciplined army about two weeks after the battle of Bunker Hill, having his headquarters in the village of Cambridge, outside Boston. Washington besieged the British under Howe in Boston, for eight months.

In the spring of 1776 he fortified Dorchester Heights, near Boston, surprising the British. Howe saw that he must evacuate Boston, and did so, going to Halifax with his army, and over a thousand Tory citizens of Boston.

Note.—The Tories were in favor of English rule, and opposed the Revolution.

(e) The Invasion of Canada.—The capture of Ticonderoga and Crown Point opened the road to Canada. Schuyler and Montgomery invaded Canada by way of Lake Champlain, in 1775. Benedict Arnold went through the wilderness of Maine, his army suffering greatly from hunger and cold, and united forces with Schuyler and Montgomery, near Quebec. After a siege of three weeks, they decided to assault the town, on the last night of 1775. It was a failure; Montgomery was killed in the battle, and Arnold was wounded. The Americans besieged Quebec till spring, when they left Canada, with nothing gained.

Independence.

(a) The battle of Bunker Hill and the capture of Boston by Washington's troops roused both the Americans and the English. King George III. determined to subdue the rebellious Americans, while they began to realize that they must fight for an independent government. The pamphlet published by Paine in 1776 on "Common Sense"

urged separation from England and had great influence. Various colonies in 1776, directed their delegates in Congress to work for independence.

(b) The Declaration of Independence.—In June, 1776, the Second Continental Congress, meeting in Philadelphia, appointed a committee to draw up a Declaration of Independence. Thomas Jefferson was the chairman of the committee, and he wrote the Declaration of Independence almost entirely. It was adopted by the Second Continental Congress in the State House at Philadelphia, on July 4, 1776, being signed later by the delegates.

The Declaration first named the various tyrannical acts of George III., and then declared that the colonies were free and independent states, owing no allegiance to England. The grand Declaration begins as follows:—

“When, in the course of human events, it becomes necessary for one people to dissolve the political bands which have connected them with another, and to assume, among the powers of the earth, the separate and equal station to which the laws of nature and of nature’s God entitle them, a decent respect to the opinions of mankind requires that they should declare the causes which impel them to the separation.

“We hold these truths to be self-evident: that all men are created equal; that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.”

(c) Formation of State Governments.—Congress, in May, 1776, advised the colonies to establish independent governments, and each colony soon became a state. Rhode Island and Connecticut did not change their governments until long after the Revolution, as their charters had made

them almost independent. In the other colonies, constitutions had to be adopted and new governors and new legislatures elected.

(d) The Second Continental Congress.—The Second Continental Congress met in Philadelphia, in 1775. Its sessions lasted with occasional adjournments, until 1781, when the Congress of the Articles of Confederation took charge. The Second Continental Congress was the head of the government during the Revolution, being composed of delegates from the thirteen colonies. It was a government of a revolutionary character only, as the country had then no Constitution to define the powers of Congress. It accomplished the following:—

1. It organized the American Continental Army and passed measures to raise money for its support.

2. It assumed control of all military affairs and appointed George Washington commander-in-chief.

3. It organized a general post-office, and established a system of Continental money.

4. It appointed a committee, of which Thomas Jefferson was chairman, to draw up a Declaration of Independence.

5. It adopted the Declaration of Independence on July 4, 1776, thus deciding on separation from England and on establishing an independent government.

6. It appointed a committee to prepare the Articles of Confederation, and adopted these Articles in 1777.

Note.—Dr. Philips, in “Nation and State,” says, “When all the States had adopted the Articles of Confederation the Continental Congress, which had lasted from 1775 to 1781, came to an end. Then a Congress, chosen annually by the States, as provided by the Articles of Confederation, carried on the government.”

Washington's Campaign in 1776-1777.

(a) Loss of New York.—After taking Boston from the British, Washington moved down to New York, to protect the city from capture. Soon the British army under General Howe and the fleet under his brother, Admiral Howe, appeared in New York. In August, 1776, a battle took place on Long Island, and the Americans under General Putnam were totally defeated. The delay of the British in attacking Washington enabled his army to escape in a fog to New York, the second night after the battle. Next he had to abandon Manhattan Island, leaving New York in the hands of the British.

(b) The Retreat Across New Jersey.—After opposing the British for over two months around New York, Washington moved across New Jersey into Pennsylvania, to protect Philadelphia. In his retreat across New Jersey, Washington's ragged army was closely pursued by the well-drilled British forces under Cornwallis. On reaching the Delaware at Trenton, Washington seized every boat on the river for a hundred miles, and thus prevented the British from pursuing him into Pennsylvania.

(c) Trenton.—The nation was very much discouraged, and Washington saw that something must be done in order to revive the fast dying hopes. Accordingly, on Christmas night, 1776, he crossed the Delaware amid drifting ice a little above Trenton, and attacked the Hessians, under Colonel Rahl, at Trenton, early the next morning. They were taken by surprise, and were utterly defeated. The Americans returned to their camp in Pennsylvania, with the loss of only four men. This victory revived the hopes of the Americans, and saved the nation.

Note 1.—During the entire Revolution, King George III. hired about 30,000 German soldiers from six petty German princes, among whom was the landgrave of Hesse-Cassel. In America, these German troops were called Hessians.

Rahl, the German commander, had a wine and card party on that Christmas night. He received a note telling him that the Americans were coming, but he refused to open it. He was mortally wounded in the battle, and a thousand Hessians were taken prisoners.

Note 2.—The American army was breaking up at this time because ill-fed and unpaid; in many cases, the enlistment period of the men had expired, and they wished to return to their homes. Washington now appealed for aid to Robert Morris, the Philadelphia banker and merchant. On January 1, 1777, Morris went from house to house asking loans, and that day was able to send Washington \$50,000 to pay the half-starved soldiers.

(d) Princeton.—Early in January, 1777, Washington's army again crossed the Delaware. Cornwallis marched with a large army from Princeton to attack him at Trenton, leaving a part of his army still at Princeton.

After some skirmishing, Cornwallis decided to postpone the battle until the next day. As Washington could not cross the Delaware, he decided to retreat in the night. Leaving his campfires burning to deceive the British, he marched round Cornwallis's army; and arriving at Princeton early the next morning, he defeated the British that had remained there. Cornwallis heard the firing and hastened to the rescue. He was too late to detain Washington, who had retreated to Morristown, in northern New Jersey, where he remained in winter quarters.

Note.—The little battles of Trenton and Princeton had great influence. They convinced America and Europe of the patriotism, energy, courage, and military skill of Washington. He alone made further resistance to England possible. His men realized soon that they had a great leader, and they learned to trust him.

Burgoyne's Campaign.

(a) In 1777, the British planned to separate New England from the other States by invading New York. General

Burgoyne with 8,000 men was to invade New York from Canada, advancing by way of Lake Champlain and the Hudson, and to be joined by Howe at Albany. The British government's orders for Howe to assist Burgoyne did not reach Howe until after he had sailed to the Chesapeake, and therefore Burgoyne had to fight the campaign unaided.

Burgoyne left Canada in June, 1777, and soon captured Fort Ticonderoga, near the head of Lake Champlain. The Americans under Schuyler greatly delayed the British by blocking the road with fallen trees, by destroying bridges, and by cutting off food supplies.

(b) Bennington.—As Burgoyne needed supplies, he sent Colonel Baum to capture some American supplies at Bennington, in southwestern Vermont. The "Green Mountain boys," led by Colonel John Stark, defeated the British utterly.

Note.—In this battle Stark said to his men: "There are the red-coats! We must beat them today, or Molly Stark is a widow."

(c) Saratoga.—Congress now took the American command from Schuyler, and gave it to the vain General Horatio Gates.

Burgoyne unaided moved southward, and attacked Gates at Bemis Heights, near Saratoga, in eastern New York. The result was indecisive. About two weeks later, Burgoyne attacked the Americans again at Stillwater. The Americans, led by Benedict Arnold, won a complete victory.

Burgoyne fell back to Saratoga, still expecting supplies; but as no help came, he was soon forced to surrender (October 17, 1777).

(d) Effect.—The effect of Burgoyne's surrender was to encourage the Americans greatly to continue their war for independence. It also induced France to become our ally

and to acknowledge our independence. It saved the State of New York and destroyed the British plan of the war.

Note.—Saratoga is called one of the decisive battles of the world. It was the turning point of the Revolution. King George, after Burgoyne surrendered, proposed peace, sending peace commissioners to offer America every demand except independence. General Reed of Pennsylvania was offered 10,000 guineas (over \$50,000) if he would try to secure such a peace. He refused, saying, "I am not worth purchasing, but such as I am, the king of Great Britain is not rich enough to buy me."

Howe's Philadelphia Campaign.

(a) The British failed to capture Philadelphia after their pursuit of Washington across New Jersey in 1776. In the spring of 1777, Howe took 18,000 men by sea from New York and came up Chesapeake Bay. When Washington learned of Howe's movement, he marched to meet him and fought the battle of the Brandywine, at Chad's Ford on Brandywine Creek, in southeastern Pennsylvania. Washington was defeated; and two weeks later, September, 1777, the British seized Philadelphia, the patriots' capital.

(b) Germantown.—The British, occupying Philadelphia under General Howe, were attacked by Washington at Germantown, a village near Philadelphia, in 1777. In the heavy fog, one American battalion fired into another, mistaking it for a British force. This caused a panic, and Washington was compelled to retreat. The result was that the British continued to hold Philadelphia, while Washington went into winter quarters at Valley Forge.

(c) Valley Forge, twenty miles from Philadelphia, was where the Americans encamped in the terrible winter of 1777-78. The soldiers suffered fearfully at Valley Forge. They had no shoes, and their clothing was thin and ragged.

Their food was not sufficient, and their huts were cold; but with all these privations they still remained loyal. These were the darkest days in Washington's life, as the colonists again lost hope. Congress could not give him aid, because it could not raise enough money by taxation and because its paper money was almost worthless.

Two circumstances brought comfort to Washington at this period. It was at Valley Forge that Baron Steuben, a German veteran of the armies of Frederick the Great, joined Washington, and drilled the raw recruits into an army of fine soldiers.

Then, when spring came, the news of the alliance with France cheered all, filling them with renewed hope.

Note 1.—During the Valley Forge Winter, 1777-'78, General Conway and others plotted to force Washington to resign, and to have Gates appointed in his place. This unsuccessful plot was called the "Conway Cabal."

Note 2.—Mrs. Lydia Darrah, by warning Washington of the British plans, saved the American army from a surprise attack by Howe while it was at White Marsh, near Philadelphia, late in 1777. The British marched back without attacking when they saw Washington prepared. Soon after, the Americans went to Valley Forge.

The War in the Northwest.

(a) Early Settlements.—The French and Indian War drove France out of the Mississippi Valley. England in 1763 forbade all settlement west of the Appalachians, reserving this western territory for the Indians, in order to secure for English merchants its valuable fur trade. The bold pioneers, however, continued their explorations, and made various settlements beyond these mountains. James Robertson and others settled in Tennessee, and he and John Sevier were prominent in defending that country from the Indians. The daring Daniel Boone began his exploration of Kentucky in 1769, and founded Boones-

borough there in 1775. North of the Ohio were a few old French settlements, such as Detroit, Kaskaskia, and Vincennes.

Note.—Three mountain trails led into the region beyond the Appalachians. Settlers from Maryland and Virginia went to Fort Cumberland in Maryland, and thence by Braddock's Road to Pittsburgh. Boone's route led into Kentucky through Cumberland Gap, in the extreme southwestern part of present Virginia; a third route followed the Holston River into the valley of the Tennessee.

(b) Clark's Work.—The British officer in command of the Northwest was Colonel Hamilton, with his headquarters at Detroit. He supplied the Indians with ammunition, and urged them to attack the settlements in Tennessee and Kentucky. George Rogers Clark planned to capture from the British the land north of the Ohio, and received permission for an expedition there from Patrick Henry, the governor of Virginia. In 1778, he and one hundred and eighty men left Pittsburgh in boats, floated down the Ohio to its mouth, and then marched a hundred miles across Illinois, in order to take Kaskaskia in western Illinois, near the Mississippi. He surprised the British garrison there, and seized the town. In the depth of winter, Clark and his men next marched against Vincennes, more than two hundred miles to the east, in what is now Indiana. The men's path led often through swollen icy streams, and food was very scarce, but they reached Vincennes in safety, and demanded its surrender from Colonel Hamilton, who had previously secured it by his march from Detroit. Hamilton was forced to surrender, and the entire region north of the Ohio was annexed to Virginia. This ended British power there, giving the United States its claim to the land between the Mississippi River and the Appalachians.

The French Alliance.

(a) Reasons.—France hated England for having seized the French possessions in America, and she saw that the Revolution was an opportunity to weaken her rival's power. In 1776, Congress sent Franklin and two others as commissioners to France, hoping to secure French aid against England. Franklin's writings, inventions, and scientific discoveries had made him famous, and he was extremely popular in France. The French aided the colonies secretly at first, with money and guns; but when the news of Burgoyne's surrender reached Europe, King Louis XVI. recognized our independence, and, in February, 1778, agreed to a treaty of alliance with us.

(b) Effects.—The French alliance brought needed French gold for the colonies' cause, as well as troops and ships. The war that resulted between France and England was a gain to the colonists, since it added to England's difficulties; the need of defending her colonies in the West Indies and the East Indies from the combined Spanish and French fleets prevented England from using her full force in America. Another effect of the French alliance was to cause the British to evacuate Philadelphia.

Note 1.—General Clinton, Howe's successor in Philadelphia, fearing that the French fleet would blockade the Delaware, left Philadelphia for New York in the summer of 1778. On his way there he was attacked by Washington at Monmouth, in eastern New Jersey. Here the Americans would have gained a great victory if it had not been for the disobedience and treachery of General Charles Lee.

Note 2.—After France in 1778 declared war against England, the fighting in America was the smallest part of the war. In 1779, Spain joined France in the attack on England, and in 1780, Holland joined England's foes. France and Spain attacked England in many places. For a while, a Franco-Spanish fleet planned an invasion of England, but the plan failed. Battles were fought in the North Sea, in the Mediterranean, in the West Indies, and in India.

John Paul Jones's Victory.

On the advice of Franklin, France fitted up an old vessel, the "Bon Homme Richard," for Admiral Paul Jones. In 1779, he attacked the British "Serapis," under Captain Pearson, in the North Sea, off Flamborough Head in north-eastern England. The battle was very fierce. During the engagement Jones lashed the two vessels together, and began a terrible hand-to-hand fight, in which three hundred of his crew of three hundred and seventy-five were killed, or wounded. At ten o'clock that night, after fighting three hours, the "Serapis" surrendered, and Jones and his crew took possession of it. The old "Bon Homme Richard" sank the next day, and Jones sailed away to Holland.

Note.—Jones's vessel was so called in honor of Franklin, the author of "Poor Richard's Almanac." It meant "Goodman Richard." During the fight the "Serapis" asked him if he surrendered, and Jones replied, "I have not yet begun to fight."

Arnold's Treason.

On the evacuation of Philadelphia by the British, Benedict Arnold, the hero of Quebec and Saratoga, was made commander of the American forces here. He got into debt by extravagance, having married into a wealthy family and lived beyond his means. For some slight offences he was reprimanded by Washington, in 1780. Notwithstanding this, he still had Washington's confidence, and was given command at West Point, in southeastern New York. In order to revenge himself for his fancied wrongs, he offered to give up West Point to the British, and opened communications with Sir Henry Clinton, who, in 1780, sent Major André to arrange matters. Arnold and André had a secret meeting together. As André's boat, the "Vulture," had been fired on and compelled to sail down the river,

André had to return by land. At Tarrytown three American soldiers captured him. He was tried by a court of American officers, and being proved to be a spy, was hanged. Arnold escaped to the British, and became a British officer.

Note 1.—André offered his three captors, Paulding, Van Wart, and Williams, any sum they would name if they would release him, but they refused every offer. Congress rewarded each with a medal and an annual pension of \$200.

Note 2.—Arnold received over £6,000, and was made a British officer for his treachery. The English despised him. Years after when dying, he asked to have his old American uniform put on him, saying, "God forgive me for ever having put on any other."

The War in the South.

(a) Georgia.—In 1778, Clinton sent forces to Georgia. They attacked and captured Savannah, in the southeastern part of Georgia. By the next year Georgia was fully conquered by the British. In 1779, General Lincoln, aided by D'Estaing's fleet, tried to recapture Savannah from the British under General Prevost; but the assault failed utterly, and Lincoln withdrew to Charleston.

(b) South Carolina.—In 1780, Clinton having left New York, besieged the Americans under Lincoln and took Charleston, in the southeastern part of South Carolina. After various other expeditions, all of South Carolina was conquered (1780). General Clinton, leaving Cornwallis in command, returned to New York. General Gates, "the conqueror of Burgoyne," was sent by Congress to command the southern forces. He was utterly defeated by Cornwallis at Camden, near the central part of South Carolina, in 1780.

(c) Partisan Warfare.—Fearless patriots like Francis Marion, Andrew Pickens, and Thomas Sumter now formed

small bands of volunteer soldiers in South Carolina, who served at their own expense. They were badly equipped and poorly fed, but they won many small fights, finding refuge in swamps and forests. Marion was called the "Swamp Fox" by the British; his force rarely exceeded seventy men, and was often less, but he and Sumter did valuable work for the patriot cause in helping to win back South Carolina.

Note.—In much of the warfare in the South, many American Tories fought for King George III. against patriot neighbors. It was partly a civil war, and was called partisan warfare.

(d) King's Mountain.—After his victory at Camden, Cornwallis sent Colonel Ferguson to enlist Tories in the hill country of South Carolina. In 1780, the mountaineers and backwoodsmen attacked him on King's Mountain, and totally defeated him.

(e) Greene's Campaign.—After the defeat at Camden, in 1780, General Greene took Gates's place as commander. In 1781, the British under Colonel Tarleton attacked Morgan at Cowpens, in northwestern South Carolina, and were defeated by him. Cornwallis, hearing of Tarleton's defeat, pursued Morgan, who then decided to retreat into Virginia. He crossed the Catawba River in North Carolina, just before Cornwallis arrived. That night the floods raised the river so high that Cornwallis could not cross for three days.

Greene now joined Morgan, and both the British and the Americans now raced northward for the Yadkin River in North Carolina.

Here the army was again saved by the flood's detaining Cornwallis. Both now tried to reach the Dan River in southern Virginia, and Greene crossed it, with his poor shoe-

less army, just as the British arrived. Cornwallis then gave up the pursuit.

After resting his men, Greene returned into North Carolina. At Guilford Court House, in northern North Carolina, Cornwallis defeated him, but with much British loss.

Cornwallis moved north into Virginia. Greene and the partisan leaders then recovered South Carolina and Georgia, except the two coast cities of Savannah and Charleston.

(f) Yorktown.—In 1781, Cornwallis marched into Virginia, thinking it the chief point of colonial resistance. General Lafayette with a small army opposed him there. Cornwallis was now ordered to occupy Yorktown in southeastern Virginia, near the coast, in order to be in sea communication with New York. Clinton expected Washington to attack New York; instead, unknown to Clinton, he moved his main force from New York, and went to Virginia. Aided by a French army under Count Rochambeau, Washington besieged Cornwallis in Yorktown, while a French fleet under Count de Grasse prevented Cornwallis either from escaping, or from receiving reinforcements. After three weeks' siege, Cornwallis had to surrender. The effect of this battle was really to end the war in America, compelling England to admit our independence.

Note 1.—Cornwallis was the ablest of the British generals. He had hoped to conquer Virginia, and had occupied Yorktown in order to cooperate with the English fleet. When the French fleet of twenty-eight ships under De Grasse blocked the York River, Cornwallis's position became dangerous, and the arrival of the forces of Washington and Count Rochambeau made it hopeless. "Shut in within a narrow promontory, his army of about 7,000 men was besieged by an army of more than 16,000, 7,000 of whom were regular French soldiers, while a fleet far more powerful than any other in American waters commanded every approach by sea." On October 19, 1781, Cornwallis was obliged to surrender with his entire army.

Note 2.—At the surrender, the seven thousand British captives marched between the French army on the one side and the American

on the other, and laid down their arms while a band played the song, "The World Turned Upside Down."

Washington sent an officer to Philadelphia to inform Congress of the surrender, and the news reached there at dead of night. The people were awakened from sleep by the watchman's cry, "Past two o'clock, and Cornwallis is taken."

Note 3.—The surrender of Cornwallis in 1781 ended the war in America, but the war with France still went on. In the spring of 1782, in the West Indies, Rodney's fleet defeated the French fleet under De Grasse; this ended the desire for further strife, and peace became possible. The British retained New York City until the treaty of peace was made in 1783.

Note 4.—Among the foreigners who aided the United States during the Revolution, Lafayette was the most prominent. Immensely wealthy, he offered himself and his fortune to the American cause. Baron de Kalb was another Frenchman who fought for the cause of American liberty, dying of the wounds he received at the battle of Camden. Thaddeus Kosciuszko was a Polish patriot who joined the American army in 1776, when he was twenty years old. He fought with distinction at New York and Yorktown, and was a great friend of Washington's. Count Pulaski was another Polish patriot; he fought valiantly for America, and was killed at the siege of Savannah. One of our most useful foreign helpers was Baron Steuben, a German, who joined the army late in 1777, and raised its standard by his drill and discipline.

TREATY OF PEACE.—Commissioners from the United States and England met at Paris, and agreed on peace terms, the treaty being signed in September, 1783. John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, and John Jay were the American peace commissioners, and they secured from England the Mississippi as our western boundary. All the region lying east of the Mississippi, south of Canada, and north of Florida became the United States. Spain received East and West Florida, which England had held for twenty years.

Note 1.—Spanish Florida included the present Florida and the Gulf strip of Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana. Spain thus controlled the mouth of the Mississippi, owning the land on both sides of it.

Note 2.—The treaty of 1783 declared that all debts contracted before the war by merchants of either nation were to be paid.

The treaty further stipulated that Congress was to recommend to the State Legislatures that they should restore the confiscated prop-

erty of British subjects and of the loyalists who had not taken up arms against the United States. The Revolution was in part a civil war, since the colonists were divided into two parties, one for England and the other against her. About 50,000 colonists served in the British army. The feeling between these loyalists, or Tories as they were called, and the patriots was very bitter. To escape personal violence, many left the United States. In the end, the loyalists lost nearly all their property. The States seized their lands, and they were never restored to them. Thousands of them went to England and Canada to live.

Note 3.—Despite the war, America prospered during the Revolution, gaining three hundred thousand inhabitants in this period. The war injured its shipping, but did not affect its agriculture very greatly. Although the country was not poor, the patriot armies were often poorly clad, without shoes, and without sufficient food. This was caused by the weak government; for Congress had no power of taxation and the support of the people was frequently refused. The paper money issued by Congress soon became worthless, because of the lack of government resources. An old bill of January, 1781, shows that in Philadelphia, a pair of boots cost \$600 in this Continental paper money, and butter cost \$20 a pound. In Boston at that time, sugar was \$10 a pound and flour \$1,575 a barrel in Continental money.

Note 4.—A knowledge of the character of English government at this time explains many points in American history.

During the Revolution, England was ruled by King George III. and a Parliament whose lower house was elected by the people. He ascended the throne in 1760, at the age of twenty-two, succeeding two monarchs who had left the control of England almost entirely to Parliament. George III. made a decided change. As a boy his mother had repeatedly said to him, "George, be king," and the young ruler determined to follow her advice. He was a man of clean moral character, but of very narrow intellect. He was intensely obstinate, and unwilling to receive advice from others. No statesman who showed any independence of mind was tolerated near him, for all must bend to his will. By the use of vast sums of money he gradually secured control of Parliament, and by 1770 he held supreme power in England. In that year he chose as his prime minister Lord North, a good man in many respects, but one who blindly followed the king's judgment. For twelve years, until the end of the Revolution, North held this position. There would have been no revolution had it not been for the king's vindictive determination to punish America for resisting his will. He opposed the repeal of the Stamp Act, yielding only because his power was not yet strong enough to prevent Parliament from repealing it. The tea tax, passed in 1770, was the king's plan to show the colonists that he was their master and had the right to tax them. The Boston Tea Party of December, 1773, made George III. furious, and he proceeded to punish Massachusetts. The entire

country took the side of the people of Massachusetts, and the war resulted.

William Pitt, the friend of the American colonists, received the title of Earl of Chatham; his second son, William Pitt, became prime minister of England in 1783, when only twenty-four years old. For twenty years he was the chief power in the English government, for king and Parliament both followed his views on public matters. George III. became insane in 1810, and from that date English sovereigns obeyed the will of Parliament, which became the governing body, rather than the king. With the extension of the right to vote, the House of Commons gradually represented the will of the English people, and to-day the House of Commons is the real head of the English government.

The Articles of Confederation.

During the Revolution, the colonies had no constitution. The difficulty of carrying on the government showed Congress the need of a general government with fixed powers. It adopted the Articles of Confederation as a kind of constitution, fixing the form of the government and the powers of Congress. These Articles went into effect when ratified by all the States in 1781. They continued in effect until 1789, when the present Constitution took their place.

A Congress, made up of delegates from all the States, was to be the head of the government.

The chief defects of the Articles were as follows:—

(a) Congress could not compel obedience to its own laws, could not compel the raising of a Federal army or the collection of Federal taxes.

(b) Congress could only advise and suggest. The States were entirely independent, and could obey or not as they pleased.

(c) Congress consisted of only one house. There was no president, and there was no national judicial department.

(d) All matters relating to war, finance, intercourse with foreign nations, and disputes between the States were to

be under the control of Congress, but no power was given to Congress to enforce its laws.

(e) Congress could not control trade between the States or with foreign nations, each State making its own laws relating to commerce.

Note.—The Articles were of value in accustoming the people to the idea of a Federal government. The Congress under the Articles of Confederation is sometimes called the Confederation Congress.

For the distress caused by the weak government of the Articles, see the later account of the adoption of the Constitution.

The Northwest.

(a) The charters of Massachusetts, Connecticut, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia gave them the land from "sea to sea;" after the treaty of 1783, they claimed from the Atlantic to the Mississippi. Maryland suggested that all States claiming land beyond the Alleghanies should surrender it to the new Federal government; and by 1786, all the land north of the Ohio River was ceded to Congress, thus ending boundary disputes. This land became the common territory of the nation.

(b) The Congress under the Articles of Confederation passed the Ordinance of 1787, organizing the land west of Pennsylvania and north of the Ohio River into a territory called the Northwest Territory. This ordinance provided that Congress should appoint the governor and the judges of the territory; that States should gradually be formed from it; and that slavery should be forever prohibited there. Congress sold this land at a low rate, and settlers moved rapidly into the Northwest Territory.

The Constitution.

Reasons for Its Adoption.—There were several causes leading to the adoption of the Constitution:—

The people saw the need of a government strong enough to compel obedience to its laws, the Articles of Confederation having proved very defective. Various troubles had been caused by the weak government. In Massachusetts, in 1786-1787, Daniel Shays headed an insurrection called Shays's Rebellion. The rioters stopped all lawsuits for debt, and created much disorder before being put down by soldiers. The Legislature of Rhode Island issued much paper money, and passed laws compelling people to accept the worthless bills. Seven States issued paper money, and most of this was never redeemed in coin. Each State had its own laws regulating commerce and levied at will taxes on foreign imports and on articles from other States. To keep the Union together, people saw that the Articles must be revised.

Action of the Convention.—A Constitutional Convention, composed of fifty-five delegates, coming from all the States except Rhode Island, met in Independence Hall, Philadelphia, in 1787, to revise the Articles of Confederation. Among its prominent members were Benjamin Franklin, Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, Robert Morris, Roger Sherman, and Gouverneur Morris. Washington was elected president of the Convention. After some discussion it was seen that it would be impossible to revise the Articles, and it was decided to form a new Constitution.

It took four months to form this Constitution, the Convention completing its work September 17, 1787. The Constitution gave the Federal government full power to coin

money, to form and control an army and a navy, to lay taxes, to make treaties, and to make laws for the nation. It divided the Federal government into three departments, legislative or lawmaking, executive or law enforcing, and judicial or law interpreting, and stated how the officials of each of these departments were to be appointed and what the duties of each were.

The Constitution gave Congress full power to enforce its laws; it took from the States the power to lay duties on imports and exports, to issue paper money, to coin money, or to enter into agreements with foreign countries or with each other.

Compromises.—Three great compromises were adopted in forming the Constitution. They were as follows:

(a) The “Connecticut Compromise” Regarding Representation.—To please the small States, the Constitution gave equal representation to the States in the Senate, as every State, large or small, was allowed two senators.

To please the large States, representation in the House of Representatives was to be according to the population, so that the State with the greatest population would send the greatest number of representatives to Congress.

This modification of the Virginia plan was called the Connecticut compromise, because it was proposed by the delegates from Connecticut.

(b) Regarding Slavery.—To please the slave-holding States, three-fifths of the slaves were to be counted in estimating the number of representatives each State might send to Congress, but in order to pacify the North, slaves were not counted in full.

(c) Regarding Slavery.—To please the South, slaves might be imported up to 1808. To please the North, the Constitution said that a tax of ten dollars or less might be laid on each slave imported, and that the slave importation might be stopped in 1808.

The Adoption of the Constitution.—The Convention adopted the Constitution on September 17, 1787. It was to go into effect when ratified by nine States. The Convention sent the Constitution to Congress and Congress sent it to the State Legislatures. The Legislature of each State directed the people to elect delegates to a State Convention to decide as to accepting or rejecting the Constitution. The result remained doubtful for some time. Delaware, Pennsylvania, and New Jersey ratified it promptly in 1787. By the end of July, 1788, eleven States had ratified it. In North Carolina and Rhode Island the opposition was very determined, and these States did not ratify the Constitution until after Washington became president.

Hamilton, Jay, and Madison induced New York to ratify the Constitution by "The Federalist" essays, published in a New York paper.

Note 1.—The six objects of the Constitution are stated in its preamble. The Preamble also declares the source of all government power to be in the people.

Note. 2.—Three great plans discussed by the Constitutional Convention were as follows.—

(a) The Virginia Plan, proposed by James Madison, made the Federal government supreme. It favored two houses with representation in both proportional to the population. This plan when modified, formed the basis of the Constitution.

(b) Hamilton's plan proposed among other features a Senate and a president, each chosen for life. This would have made the government an aristocracy.

(c) The New Jersey Plan advocated a Congress of one House, all the States having equal representation in it.

Note 3.—The five most important Conventions in our early history were: The New England Convention in 1643, the Albany Convention in 1754, the First Continental Congress in 1774, the Second Continental Congress beginning 1775, and the Constitutional Convention of 1787.

Note 4.—Gladstone, the great English statesman, said: "The American Constitution is the most wonderful work ever struck off at a given time by the brain and purpose of man."

Note 5.—A series of articles signed by "Publius," explaining the new Constitution, appeared in the "New York Packet," from October 30, 1787, at intervals until New York ratified the Constitution in 1788. "Publius" was the name used by the three authors.—Hamilton, Madison, and Jay. The essays were afterwards collected in a volume called "The Federalist."

Organization of the New Government.

(a) The Congress under the Articles of Confederation appointed March 4, 1789, as the date of the beginning of the new national government, with New York as the capital. Electors chosen by the various States voted for Washington as president, and for John Adams as vice-president. Washington, on learning of his election, left Mount Vernon for New York City, and was inaugurated there on April 30, 1789.

The president and Congress had a difficult task. The government had to establish public credit, raise revenue, organize new territory, and develop industries and national resources.

(b) The members of Congress did not arrive on March 4, 1789, but both bodies organized during the first week in April. Among its early measures, Congress created four departments to assist the president, and the heads, or secretaries, of these departments as appointed by Washington, formed the president's cabinet. Of these four, the chief members were Thomas Jefferson, the Secretary of State, having control of national relations with foreign

countries; and Alexander Hamilton, having charge of the nation's money matters.

Note.—The four members of Washington's Cabinet were the Secretary of State, the Secretary of the Treasury, the Secretary of War, and the Attorney-General. These met with the president and advised him on important matters. To-day, there are ten members in the president's Cabinet.

Washington's Administration (1789—1797).

Inauguration.—Washington was inaugurated president in New York City on April 30, 1789. His four Cabinet members, when nominated by him and confirmed by the Senate, assumed their duties and endeavored to do their part in getting the government in working order.

Hamilton's Plans.—The nation was deeply in debt and could not borrow readily, as it had no credit. Hamilton proposed certain measures to Congress to remedy the matter and Congress adopted them. Hamilton's financial policy included:

(a) The laying of a tariff on goods imported into the United States. This not only raised revenue for government needs, but encouraged American manufactures.

(b) The assumption by Congress of the full national and State debts. This made the national debt in 1790 the sum of \$75,000,000. By promising to pay this debt, Congress established our national credit, as it showed that we were honest, and worthy of further credit.

(c) The establishment of a bank by Congress.

(d) The laying of an internal revenue tax, by taxing all whiskey manufactured in the United States.

These measures of Hamilton proved successful. The nation was able to borrow as needed, while the tariff and the tax on whiskey supplied a considerable amount of revenue to carry on the government.

The Whiskey Rebellion.—The Whiskey Rebellion of 1794 was an attempt by the people of western Pennsylvania to resist the payment of the government tax on whiskey. These Western settlers could find no market for their grain, and they made whiskey out of the surplus. They were angry at the tax and drove off the collectors. Washington sent an army there, and the resistance ended, for the people saw that they must obey the Federal law.

The Capital.—There was much discussion as to the location of the permanent capital. By a compromise, Congress voted to make Philadelphia the temporary capital from 1790 to 1800, with the permanent capital after 1800 on the Potomac River. Maryland and Virginia ceded the District of Columbia for the seat of the Federal government, and Congress accepted the site in 1790, the new city being called Washington. In 1800, the seat of government was moved to Washington.

Note 1.—Washington is located in the District of Columbia, on the north bank of the Potomac. Originally it lay on both sides of the river, Maryland and Virginia having each given part. The part ceded by Virginia was returned to her in 1846.

Note 2.—When Congress moved to Washington in 1800, there were a few boarding houses, a house for the president, and a partly finished capitol building. The streets were not yet graded, and people ridiculed the president's "palace in the woods."

Converneur Morris said of the new capital, "We want nothing here but houses, cellars, kitchens, well-informed men, amiable women, and other trifles like that to make our city perfect."

The Mint.—By Hamilton's advice, a mint was established in 1792, in Philadelphia, for the coinage of silver and gold. Before this time, the nation used only foreign coins and State bills.

Note.—Mints are now located at Philadelphia, New Orleans, Denver, Carson City, and San Francisco.

The Bank of the United States.—By Hamilton's advice, Congress passed a law in 1791 chartering the Bank of the

United States for twenty years in Philadelphia. The government deposited its money in the bank. It was a great aid to business, as its bills, or notes, were accepted throughout the United States.

Note 1.—The Bank of North America in Philadelphia was chartered by the Congress under the Articles of Confederation in 1781.

Note 2.—The first census, taken in 1790, showed that the United States had a population of 3,900,000, of whom one-fifth were negroes. The largest cities were Philadelphia, New York, Boston, Charleston, and Baltimore. These cities were mere towns, and connection between them was by the slow stage-coach over bad roads.

The Cotton Gin.—Eli Whitney, of Massachusetts, invented the cotton gin, to clean the cotton fibres of its seeds, in 1792. It was a very useful invention, and led to the increased planting of cotton, which soon became one of the chief Southern crops. This invention also led to the increase of slavery, since additional slave labor was needed to cultivate the cotton.

Note 1.—A negro “hand” could in the old days “clean up” only five or six pounds a day. But by means of Whitney’s gin, he might clean from three hundred to a thousand pounds, which put an entirely new face on the profits of cotton-growing.

Thwaites and Kendall.

Note 2.—Lord Macaulay, the great English historian, said of Eli Whitney: “What Peter the Great did to make Russia dominant, Eli Whitney’s invention of the cotton-gin has more than equalled in its relation to the power and progress of the United States.”

The Rise of Political Parties.—Hamilton wished to secure a strong national government, while Jefferson opposed Hamilton’s plans, defending the rights of the States against the national government. Each of these leaders had his followers, and thus parties arose. Hamilton’s followers called themselves Federalists; they believed in a tariff, and in a strong national government, with greater powers than those of the States. Jefferson’s followers were called Democratic-Republicans; they believed in the doc-

trine of State rights, and thought that the States should be stronger than the nation.

Note.—The Democratic-Republican party believed in a strict following of the words of the Constitution, and in giving the national government only the powers expressly stated in the Constitution; the Federalists favored a “liberal construction” of the Constitution in order to give the national government more power.

The Difficulties with England.—England still kept possession of Detroit and other northwestern forts, because the States had refused to pay the loyalists and British merchants for property taken from them by Americans during the Revolution. She also took from American vessels naturalized American sailors who had once been her subjects, and she frequently “impressed” them into the English navy, her claim being that no British subject could change his nationality.

England being at war with France at this time, forbade neutral nations to take up a war commerce with France, if they did not have such commerce in time of peace. On this ground, England unjustly seized American ships trading with the French West Indies. To settle all these disputes without war, John Jay, then Chief Justice of the United States Supreme Court, was sent to London as commissioner to make a treaty with England. By Jay’s treaty, England agreed to evacuate the American forts, and the United States agreed to pay certain loyalist claims. England did not agree to stop impressment of naturalized Americans, nor did she give up her claim to the right to search our ships. The Senate of the United States ratified this unpopular treaty in 1795; it was of value in postponing war with Great Britain till 1812.

The French Revolution.—France under the rule of her kings was practically a despotism. No distinction was

made between the king's private funds and the national treasury, and this led to the great extravagance of the French court; the king could issue orders for the imprisonment of anyone without trial, these orders of arrest being called *lettres de cachet*. This despotic rule of the king was one cause of the French Revolution. Another cause was the unfair system of taxation, the common people paying heavy taxes, from which the great nobles were free; the money raised by this taxation was squandered by the idle, extravagant court. A third cause was the feudal rights which the nobles still claimed. Only the nobles were allowed to hunt the game, which often damaged the peasants' crops; a part of these crops was collected by the nobles who owned estates.

In 1774, Louis XVI., when twenty years old, became king of France. He was well-meaning, but incompetent. "The aid given to the United States had added about \$300,000,000 to the French national debt;" and this, added to the previous extravagant waste of the court, threatened a national bankruptcy. In 1789, hoping to help matters, King Louis summoned the States-General, composed of representatives from the clergy, the nobles, and the common people, or the Third Estate. The deputies of the Third Estate secured control, called themselves a National Assembly, and proceeded to make great reforms. On July 14, 1789, the Paris mob seized and destroyed the Bastille, the old political prison. The National Assembly continued at work for two years, drawing up a new constitution which made France a limited monarchy, with a Legislative Assembly, elected by the people, as the law-making body. This new Legislative Assembly after a year gave way, in September, 1792, to a national Convention, whose first act

was to abolish the monarchy and proclaim France a republic. By a small majority, the Convention condemned Louis to death, and the unfortunate monarch was beheaded in January, 1793. The control of the Convention by Danton, Robespierre, and others, led to the Reign of Terror, whose worst period was the ten months from September, 1793, to July, 1794. Thousands were beheaded by the guillotine, among them being the beautiful Marie Antoinette, the wife of King Louis. When Robespierre was finally overthrown and beheaded in July, 1794, the Reign of Terror ended. The Convention finally adopted a constitution, vesting the law-making power in the Council of Five Hundred and the Council of Ancients, while the executive power was a Directory of five members. This constitution went into effect in 1795.

American Difficulties With France in 1793.—After the death of Louis XVI., England, Austria, Prussia, and other European monarchies united to wage war against France. In 1793, Genêt was sent by France as minister to the United States. He expected America to declare war against the allies on behalf of his country. Genêt soon after landing in America fitted out two privateers to attack British commerce and tried to arouse the people to aid France against England. Washington issued a proclamation of neutrality, although many Americans favored the French cause. When Genêt appealed to the people to alter the course of the president, Washington asked France to recall him, and the trouble ended for the time.

Note 1.—The term “sans culotte” was applied in France to the ardent supporters of the French Revolution. It meant those who wore the long republican trousers in place of the knee breeches of the aristocrats.

Note 2.—The French Revolution despite its excesses, brought many benefits. Feudalism with its privileged nobles was destroyed; the despotic, absolute rule of a monarch gave way to a constitutional

government; arbitrary imprisonment at the king's pleasure was no longer possible; all Frenchmen, noble or peasant, became equal before the law. These ideas of justice and constitutional rule spread through Europe and advanced civilization in every land.

Note 3.—After serving two terms (eight years) as president, Washington was urged to take the presidency a third term, but he refused and retired from public life. He took leave of the people in a farewell address, which has become very famous for its wise and patriotic sentiments. He urged the people to preserve the Union, saying, "It is a main pillar in the edifice of your real independence." He advised them to refrain from sectional feelings and from all excess of party spirit. He warned them to beware of the influence of foreign nations, and recommended having "as little political connection as possible" with them.

Washington published this Farewell Address to the American people in the newspapers a few months before the end of his second term. It first appeared in the "Daily Advertiser" of Philadelphia, on September 19, 1796.

Conditions to-day are much different from what they were in Washington's time. The aeroplane, the submarine, and swift ocean vessels combine to make the intervening oceans less of a protection from our possible foreign foes; commerce, too, has grown vastly and must be protected. America, therefore, cannot stand aloof from the rest of the world, and must have the political connection that Washington opposed. Many statesmen of to-day believe that the United States must join European governments in the proposed league of nations which will agree to prevent by force aggressive wars and to protect the rights of weaker nations.

Note 4.—The thirteen original States were Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, Delaware, New Jersey, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia.

Vermont was admitted in 1791. Maine at this time was a part of Massachusetts.

John Adams's Administration (1797—1801).

Note.—John Adams was elected by the Federalist party.

Trouble With France.—France at this time had as its executive authority a Directory of five men. They were angry because of the American refusal to aid France against England and because of the signing of Jay's treaty. After they refused to receive the American minister, Charles C. Pinckney, Adams sent three envoys to

Paris to try to secure peace. These envoys were told by agents of the Directory that no new treaty would be made unless America gave \$50,000 to each of the five Directors and loaned a large sum to France. In reporting the matter to Congress, the names of these French agents were given as Mr. X, Mr. Y, and Mr. Z; hence the affair was called the X, Y, Z Mission.

Congress now prepared for war; an army was organized with Washington as commander, and a Navy Department formed in charge of a Secretary of the Navy. The American navy won a number of victories in the French West Indies in this war with France. Napoleon meanwhile became ruler of France in place of the Directory, and he made a treaty of peace with the United States in 1800.

Note.—Pinckney, one of the American commissioners to France, in reply to the demand for the \$250,000, said "Not a cent! Not a cent!" This was later changed to the popular expression: "We have millions for defense, but not a cent for tribute."

Alien and Sedition Acts.—In 1798, while preparing for war with France, Congress passed the Alien and Sedition Acts. One of the Alien Acts gave the president power for two years to banish any foreigner whom he considered dangerous to the country. The Sedition Act gave the government the right to punish by fine and imprisonment any one convicted of speaking or writing anything false about Congress or any government officer. Under this law, a number of persons were punished.

Both of these laws angered the Democratic-Republicans, as they said these laws interfered with rights guaranteed to the people by the Constitution. The Legislatures of Virginia and Kentucky passed resolutions declaring that the Alien and Sedition laws were unconstitutional. The

next year (1799), Kentucky declared that a State might veto, or nullify, any law it considered unconstitutional.

Congress soon repealed the two laws, but their unpopularity caused the defeat of John Adams in the next presidential election.

Jefferson's Administration (1801—1809).

Note 1.—Jefferson was opposed to the Federalists. He was a Republican, believing the State was independent of the nation. His party is now called the Democratic party.

Note 2.—Thomas Jefferson was elected by the House of Representatives, as he and Aaron Burr had the same number of electoral votes after the election by the people. The Constitution at that time said the candidate with the highest electoral vote should be president, and the second on the list should be vice-president. In 1804, by the Twelfth Amendment to the Constitution, this was changed, so that each party has a candidate for the presidency, and a separate one for the vice-presidency.

The Louisiana Purchase.—Early in his administration, Jefferson asked France to sell New Orleans to the United States, in order to obtain control of the Mississippi River. Napoleon, needing money for his wars, and fearing England might seize Louisiana, now offered the whole of the province for fifteen million dollars. Jefferson agreed, and thus added to the United States this immense region, extending from the Mississippi River on the east, to Texas and the Rocky Mountains on the west. The Louisiana Purchase made the United States about twice as large as before.

Note 1.—When Napoleon signed this treaty, he said, “I have just given to England a maritime rival that will sooner or later humble her pride.”

Note 2.—Robert Livingston was one of the United States delegates to sign the Louisiana treaty. After signing, Livingston said, “From this day the United States take their place among the powers of the first rank.”

Note 3.—In 1803, the white settlers in Louisiana Territory were mainly along the lower Mississippi, with New Orleans the chief town, the white population being mainly French. St. Louis was then only a small village.

The Exploration of the Oregon Country.—In 1804, Jefferson sent out a small expedition of forty-five men, with Meriwether Lewis and William Clark, brother of George Rogers Clark, as leaders, in order to explore the country beyond the Rocky Mountains. The expedition set out from St. Louis, ascended the Missouri almost to its source, crossed the Rockies, and finally went down the Columbia to the Pacific, thus traveling about two thousand miles. They arrived in St. Louis in 1806, their journey lasting a little over two years. The effect of this expedition was to give the country a knowledge of part of Louisiana Territory and to give the United States a better claim to the Oregon country. It also opened up this section as a valuable fur-trading region.

The Invention of the Steamboat.—Robert Fulton invented the steamboat in Jefferson's administration. In 1807, his boat, the "Clermont," steamed up the Hudson from New York to Albany on its first trip, making the journey of one hundred and fifty miles in thirty-two hours. This invention led to increased commerce, and aided in settling the West by making it easier to reach, as steamboats soon came into general use.

Note.—People made fun of Fulton, calling his boat "Fulton's Folly." In 1819, the "Savannah," using sails and steam-engine, crossed the Atlantic Ocean from the city of Savannah, Georgia, to Liverpool, taking twenty-five days for the voyage.

The Growth of the Democratic Spirit.—Although the nation grew in size and wealth, the pomp and ceremony of Washington's day steadily decreased. In dress and manners Jefferson favored simplicity, and opposed extravagance of any kind. He hated titles and display, and met all his visitors as equals, dropping the ceremony that Wash-

ington and Adams had kept up. This simplicity of style affected the nation.

Note 1.—Aaron Burr in 1805 formed a plot, it was thought, to conquer Texas and make a new republic out of part of the Mississippi Valley, with New Orleans as capital and Burr as president. In 1807, he was tried in Richmond, Virginia, for treason, but was acquitted. He died poor and deserted, almost thirty years later.

Note 2.—The inhabitants of the Barbary States in northern Africa were pirates, capturing the vessels of nations that did not pay them tribute. The pasha of Tripoli demanded a larger tribute, and when Jefferson refused, the pasha declared war (1801). Jefferson sent a fleet to blockade and bombard the city of Tripoli. In this blockade, the “*Philadelphia*,” under Captain Bainbridge, ran aground in the harbor of Tripoli, in 1803, and Bainbridge and his crew were captured and imprisoned. Lieutenant Stephen Decatur, in 1804, reached the captured “*Philadelphia*,” drove the Tripolitan crew overboard, set the ship on fire, and escaped without losing a man.

Other battles were fought until the pasha was glad to make peace in 1805, and the disgraceful tribute money was no longer paid by the United States.

New European Wars and Their Effect on America.—Napoleon Bonaparte, born in Corsica in 1769, was educated at a French military school. He entered the French army, and “the little corporal” soon became the idol of his soldiers for his victories. The Revolution gave this wonderful soldier an opportunity. A young general of twenty-eight, he conducted a brilliant campaign against the Austrians in Italy in 1796 and 1797, and conquered them. The war with England continued, and the Directory, the head of the French government at this time, sent Bonaparte to Egypt, hoping that from there he could conquer England’s Indian possessions. By Nelson’s naval victory in the battle of the Nile in 1798, the French fleet was destroyed, and Napoleon had to give up his plans and return to France. Taking advantage of the political confusion there in November, 1799, he managed to secure the overthrow of the Directory and to obtain control of the government with the title of First Consul. In 1804, he was crowned emperor

of the French. In 1805, a new alliance of England, Russia, Austria, and Sweden united to fight Napoleon. Napoleon had long planned to invade England, but his opportunity never came. In 1805, Nelson, England's great admiral, defeated the French and Spanish fleets off Cape Trafalgar, in southern Spain, making England secure from invasion, and giving her the command of the seas for many years.

In 1805, Napoleon defeated Austria and Russia at the battle of Austerlitz, in northwestern Austria; in 1806, he overwhelmed Prussia at the battle of Jena.

In May, 1806, England, by an Order in Council, declared a blockade of the coast of Europe from the mouth of the Elbe to Brest, in northwestern France, warning all nations of her intention to seize vessels entering or leaving ports between these two points. Napoleon, in November, 1806, issued the Berlin Decree, so called from the place of proclamation, declaring the British Isles in a state of blockade and forbidding all commerce with them. In 1807, England, by other Orders in Council, forbade all neutral trade with France and her allies. She allowed neutral vessels to enter the blockaded ports if they first entered an English port and paid duties. Napoleon followed with the Milan Decree, in December, 1807, ordering the seizure of every neutral vessel paying duty in a British port or trading with a British port. These decrees and orders ruined American commerce, and together with England's impressment, or seizure, of our seamen made Jefferson determined to act.

To cut Europe off from receiving American goods, Congress, at Jefferson's suggestion, passed the Embargo Act, in 1807, which prohibited our vessels from sailing to for-

eign ports. This harmed America more than Europe, and it was repealed in 1809.

The Non-Intercourse Act of 1809 forbade trade only with France and England. The only gain that resulted from the Embargo Act was the impulse it gave to home manufactures, since foreign goods were largely shut out. The long series of grievances ended in war with England in 1812.

Note.—From 1808 to 1812, Napoleon was at the height of his power. In 1808, he made his brother king of Spain, causing a Spanish revolt. The English sent Sir Arthur Wellesley (later the Duke of Wellington) to Portugal, and for four years he fought the French in Spain, draining Napoleon's resources. Late in 1809, Napoleon divorced his wife Josephine, and married Maria Louisa, the daughter of the Austrian emperor, in 1810. In 1812, he invaded Russia. He reached Moscow, but was forced to retreat from there in winter, when the Russians burned the city. Of his 500,000 men, he brought back about 20,000 after this campaign of six months. Prussia now allied herself with Russia and Austria, and Napoleon was defeated in the three-day battle of Leipsic, in 1813. When the allies entered Paris, in 1814, Napoleon abdicated and was given in derision the rule over the little Mediterranean island of Elba. He returned to France in March, 1815, and for the "Hundred Days" held his own. At Waterloo, in June, 1815, he was utterly defeated by the English and the Germans, under Wellington and Blücher. Napoleon, after vainly trying to reach America, surrendered himself to the commander of the "Bellerophon," who took him to England. The allied powers banished him to St. Helena, a little, lonely island about thirteen hundred miles from the coast of Africa. Here he lived for six years, dying in 1821.

Napoleon was more than a mere conqueror. He built many fine roads and beautified Paris, changing it into a modern city. He gave France a firm, stable government; under his direction, the Code Napoléon was drawn up, establishing a system of laws which is used to-day in France. His despotism, his love of military glory at any price, and his utter disregard of all honor, deprive him, however, of true greatness.

Madison's Administration (1809-1817).

Note.—James Madison was elected by the old Republican party, the party of Jefferson. This party was called the Democratic party after some years.

The War of 1812.

Causes.—The causes of the War of 1812 were:

The capture, or impressment, of American sailors, England insisting on the right to search American vessels for her former subjects.

The blockading of American ports, in order to prevent our trade with other nations.

The capture of American vessels when trading with France or her allies.

Note.—England did not want war with America, as her struggle with Napoleon took all her power. Two days before Congress declared war, the English government decided on withdrawing the measures most annoying to American merchants, but this news did not reach the United States for some weeks. America was entirely unprepared when war began. The Democratic-Republicans favored the war, and having a majority in Congress, they insisted on declaring war. The great war in Europe of England and her allies against Napoleon gave America her opportunity in the War of 1812, for England could send only a small part of her forces to America, needing them too greatly in Europe.

The two chief objects of the Americans in the War of 1812 were the invasion of Canada and the control of the Great Lakes. The English plan of action was to beat back the attack on Canada, to crush American commerce at sea, and to invade Virginia and Louisiana.

Hull's Campaign.—The invasion of Canada was one of the main objects of the United States in the War of 1812. General William Hull was sent from Ohio through the wilderness to defend Detroit, then a town of eight hundred inhabitants. In 1811, the Indians of the Northwest, led by Tecumseh, had been defeated at Tippecanoe, in Indiana. Tecumseh then fled to Canada, becoming the ally of the British. Hull crossed into Canada, planning to attack Fort Malden. Learning that the British under General Brock, aided by the Indians under Tecumseh, were marching to attack Detroit, Hull retreated from Canada back to Detroit. Without firing a shot, Hull surrendered Detroit

to General Brock. This, with the capture of two other posts, gave the British control of Michigan Territory.

Note.—Hull was governor of Michigan Territory from 1805 to 1814. For his surrender of Detroit he was tried by a court of army officers and convicted of cowardice and neglect of duty. He was sentenced to be shot, but was pardoned by President Madison for his Revolutionary services. For twelve years, Hull lived under a cloud of disgrace. The War Department at Washington finally gave him copies of documents from which he wrote a history of his case, proving that he had surrendered from humane motives, to save the town of Detroit when he could no longer protect it. Most historians agree that he did all he could under the circumstances.

Perry's Victory.—The control of the Great Lakes was very important, armies and supplies being sent over their waters. The United States determined to destroy the British fleet on Lake Erie, and put Captain Oliver H. Perry in command of the task. At Presque Isle (now Erie), he hastily built five of his little fleet of nine ships. In 1813, Perry fought the British fleet under Captain Barclay, near the western end of the lake, and captured the six British vessels. To General Harrison, he sent word of his victory with the short message, "We have met the enemy and they are ours,—two ships, two brigs, one schooner, and one sloop." He wrote his news on the back of an old letter, with his hat as a table. This victory had a great effect in encouraging the Americans, as it proved to them our ships and sailors were better than England's. Another effect was to aid in winning the battle of the Thames.

Note.—Perry's flag bore the words, "Don't give up the ship." These were the words said by the defeated, dying Lawrence in the battle between his ship, the "Chesapeake," and the British "Shannon," in 1813, near Boston.

In Perry's battle, the "Lawrence" lost four-fifths of her crew, and was riddled with shot. Perry and his twelve-year-old brother left the sinking ship, and were rowed by sailors through the thick of the battle to the "Niagara," and from this ship he won the victory.

The Battle of the Thames.—A new army under General William Henry Harrison had been formed to recapture

Michigan Territory. Perry, after his victory, had control of Lake Erie; in 1813, his fleet carried Harrison's army across to Canada, where Harrison defeated the British under Proctor, at the Thames River, a Canadian river emptying near Detroit. Tecumseh, the Indian ally of the British, was killed in this battle. The effect of Harrison's victory was to win back Michigan Territory for the United States.

The Battle of Plattsburg.—In 1814, Sir George Prevost, the governor-general of Canada, with a large, well-trained army, moved down from Canada to invade New York, his land force being aided by a small fleet on Lake Champlain. An American army under General Macomb was located at Plattsburg, on Lake Champlain. The American fleet under Commodore Macdonough utterly defeated the British fleet under Commodore Downie in Plattsburg Bay, an arm of Lake Champlain. Prevost was repulsed by Macomb, and began his retreat to Canada that night. This was one of the most important successes of the war.

Ocean Battles.—The Americans had no navy to oppose England's fleets, and could fight only in single combats with her ships.

In 1812, the American frigate, the "Constitution," called "Old Ironsides," under Captain Isaac Hull, fought the British frigate "Guerrière" under Captain Daeres in the Atlantic Ocean, to the southeast of Nova Scotia. After a half-hour's fierce fight the "Guerrière" had to surrender, being so much injured that it had to be blown up. This victory had a great effect in encouraging the Americans.

Note 1.—Captain Isaac Hull was the nephew of General William Hull. The battle was fought in lat. 41° 40', long. 55° 48'.

Note 2.—Guerrière is the French word for "warrior."

The "Constitution" under Captain Bainbridge, in 1812, destroyed the British frigate, the "Java," under Captain Lambert, off the coast of Brazil.

The "Essex," under Captain Porter, captured ten British ships in the Atlantic and a dozen in the Pacific. In 1814, after a year and a half of such success, the "Essex" was defeated and captured by two British vessels near Valparaiso, Chile.

The British blockaded the Atlantic coast of the United States, closing almost all our sea trade, and this made the war unpopular in New England. Only daring privateers were left to prey on English merchant ships; during the war, about thirteen hundred English merchant vessels were captured by the American ships.

The Campaign Against Washington.—The capital was entirely unfortified. In 1814, a British fleet sailed up Chesapeake Bay, and landed a small British army under General Ross. The untrained American militia were easily routed at Bladensburg, six miles from Washington. The British then captured the city of Washington, and burned the Capitol, the White House, and other public buildings, while President Madison and other government officials fled into Virginia.

The British then sailed to Baltimore. General Ross was killed in the land attack on the city. The fleet vainly bombarded Fort McHenry, at the entrance to the harbor of Baltimore, and the British soon withdrew from the Chesapeake.

Note.—Francis Scott Key, a resident of Georgetown, was sent to try to secure the release of a prisoner taken by the British in their raid on Washington in 1814. He boarded the British fleet under a flag of truce. He was detained by the British while they attacked Baltimore. He saw the bombardment of Fort McHenry during the night. When morning came, Key looked eagerly to see if Fort McHenry had surrendered. He was so delighted at seeing the American

flag still flying from the fort that he at once wrote "The Star-Spangled Banner" on the back of a letter he had with him. This song is our national ode.

THE STAR-SPANGLED BANNER.

Oh, say, can you see, by the dawn's early light,
 What so proudly we hail'd at the twilight's last gleaming,
 Whose broad stripes and bright stars through the perilous fight,
 O'er the ramparts we watch'd, were so gallantly streaming?
 And the rockets' red glare, the bombs bursting in air,
 Gave proof through the night that our flag was still there.
 Oh, say, does that star-spangled banner yet wave
 O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave!

Oh, thus be it ever, when freemen shall stand
 Between their lov'd homes and the war's desolation!
 Blest with vict'ry and peace, may the heav'n rescued land
 Praise the Power that hath made and preserved us a nation!
 Then conquer we must, for our cause it is just;
 And this be our motto, "In God is our trust;"
 And the star-spangled banner in triumph shall wave
 O'er the land of the free and the home of the brave.

War With the Creek Indians.—During the Revolution, the Creek Indians, with their fifty towns in Alabama and Georgia, were the allies of the English, and when the War of 1812 broke out, they joined the British again, being urged on by Tecumseh. In 1813, the Creeks captured Fort Mims, in southern Alabama, and massacred four hundred Americans. General Andrew Jackson was sent against them and practically destroyed the Creek nation. His last battle with them was at Horseshoe Bend, Alabama, in 1814. By this war, the United States secured most of the Creek Indian lands.

The Battle of New Orleans.—The British fleet next moved against New Orleans, hoping to capture the city and so control the Mississippi River. They landed an army of skilled British soldiers under General Pakenham. After several small battles in the swamps near the city, the British, early in 1815, moved against New Orleans, defended

by General Andrew Jackson and his army of sharpshooters. The British were utterly defeated. Over two thousand of the British were killed or wounded, while the Americans, sheltered by fortifications of logs and earth, had only eight killed and thirteen wounded. A few weeks later the British survivors sailed away.

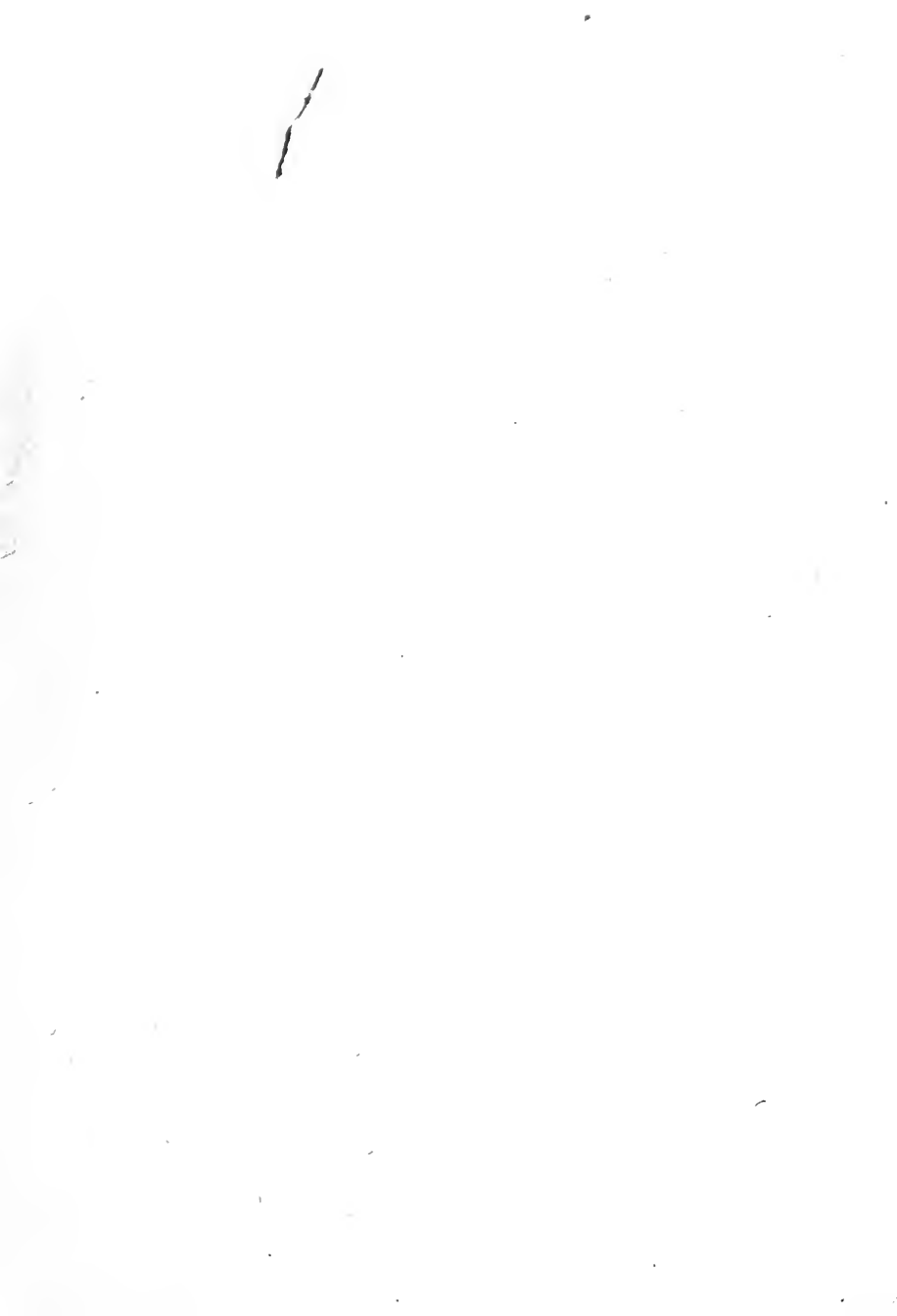
Note.—The battle of New Orleans was fought after the treaty of peace had been signed, as the slow sailing-vessels had not yet brought the news of peace. The victory made Jackson famous throughout the country.

The Treaty.—The treaty of peace was made by commissioners from both countries, and was signed at Ghent, Belgium, on December 24, 1814. Boundaries remained as before the war. No mention was made in the treaty of the right of search and of impressment of sailors, but England after that date respected American rights on the sea.

Results of the War.—European nations felt greater respect for the United States, and ceased to interfere with it. Its commerce was no longer molested.

American manufactures increased greatly during the war, the articles being needed to take the place of English goods.

The Americans felt greater respect for their own country and became more independent of England in every way.



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